

# The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

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AND

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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## European Elections of 1924 and 1925

BY PROFESSOR GEORGE B. MANHART, DE PAUW UNIVERSITY

Never in the history of mankind did so many people vote in one year as in 1924. Never before have so many nations of importance conducted elections in one year, and never before have so many been privileged to share in their country's balloting. In approximately one-third of the nations of the world general elections were carried on, and in many others local elections. In 1925, however, elections have not been so numerous.

National elections were held in 1924 in nine countries of Europe—Greece, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and Finland among the smaller countries, and Great Britain, France, Italy, and Germany among the great powers. In Germany two elections for the Reichstag were conducted in 1924, and two elections were necessary to choose a president in 1925, Finland elected a president in 1925, and parliamentary elections have been held in Yugoslavia, Belgium, Holland and Northern Ireland. The purpose of this paper is to bring together some of the leading facts concerning each of these elections, and then to draw a few general conclusions regarding them.

Americans who naturally think of national elections as being primarily for the choice of a president must keep in mind that most European elections are not of that type. It must be recalled that in European countries the real executive power is in the hands of the premiers and their cabinets, whether the governments be monarchies or republics, and that even in Germany and Finland, where the presidents are elected by popular vote, their power is distinctly inferior to that of the premiers. Throughout Europe, the premiers and cabinets hold their positions as leaders of parliament, and rise and fall with the shifting parliamentary majorities. The "upper" or "first" houses of the parliaments are generally hereditary or appointive or elected indirectly, and in all cases have much less power than the "lower" or "second" houses, which are popularly elected. Thus it is in the election of the more popular houses of their parliaments that the European peoples determine who shall be their real leaders and what shall be their policies. It is these parliamentary elections that demand our study if we would understand political conditions in present-day Europe.

### CONSERVATIVE VICTORY IN ENGLAND

The English government, like that of the United States and in contrast with all continental governments, has been based on a two-party system. Quite frequently more than two parties have contested

elections, but third parties have usually been temporary or of minor importance, as in our country. In the so-called "Khaki election" of December, 1918, there were only two main parties, the Coalition of Liberals and Conservatives that held over from the war, and the hitherto small Labor party. In the three elections which have taken place since then, however, there have been three main parties, as the Coalition broke up in 1922, and the Labor party has risen very rapidly. In the 1922 election the 14,000,000 voters were rather evenly divided, each of the three parties obtaining between four million and five and a third million votes, but the Conservatives received a big majority in the House of Commons. In the election of December, 1923, each of the parties made a slight increase in its popular vote, the Labor party having the largest increase, about a quarter of a million. Although the Conservative party retained a plurality in the House of Commons, it lacked a majority, and its cabinet resigned. Labor, having the next largest membership in the Commons, was invited to form a cabinet, and with the acquiescence of the Liberal party, came into power for the first time, with the veteran leader, Ramsay MacDonald, as prime minister.

Having the support of the Liberals, the MacDonald ministry was successful in a number of lines, notably in introducing a better feeling in international affairs. On account of its precarious position in Parliament, the Labor ministry was unable to introduce any of its much feared Socialistic schemes. Increasing opposition manifested itself, however, to the treaty that MacDonald negotiated with Soviet Russia, and when, in October, 1924, almost all of the Liberals joined with the Conservatives in demanding a parliamentary inquiry into the case of a Communist editor against whom charges of sedition had been made and then withdrawn, MacDonald decided to appeal the case to the country, and asked the King to dissolve Parliament.

Three weeks after the adverse vote in Parliament, the election took place, so there was no opportunity for such long drawn out campaigning as we are accustomed to in this country. During the campaign there was much talk of the Soviet treaty and there were personal criticisms of MacDonald and other ministers, and the long felt dread of Socialism was called out, but in the last week of the campaign attention was largely diverted from other issues by the "Zinoviev letter." This was a letter from the



Executive Committee of the Third International of Moscow addressed to the British Communist party urging violent activities in England, particularly in the direction of crippling the army and navy. The Labor cabinet published the note which it had sent to the Soviet government, severely censuring the Russians for violating their agreement not to carry on propaganda in England. But the attention of the voters of England had been drawn to Russia, and the supposed dangers from Russia, and there was a feeling that the Labor party was closer to Russian ideals than other English parties.

Much the largest vote ever cast in England was that of October 29, 1924. The Conservatives gained about two and a half million over their vote of ten months earlier, while Labor gained about a million and the Liberals lost something over a million. A total of 16,640,000 votes were cast as against 14,462,000 in December, 1923. Luck in the triangular contests, which had been with the Conservatives in 1922 and the Labor party in 1923, shifted strongly to the Conservatives this time, and with their 47 per cent. of the popular vote they gained 67 per cent. of the seats in the House of Commons. Labor obtained about 24 per cent. of the seats, and the Liberals only 7 per cent. MacDonald promptly resigned, and Stanley Baldwin, his predecessor, became also his successor.

The great defeat of the Labor party was more apparent than real. Its popular vote of more than five and a half millions in 1924 was well over a million greater than that of 1923, and while it had obtained 30 per cent. of the popular vote in 1923, it gained 33 per cent. in 1924. As to the Liberal party, the situation is much different, and the prediction has been freely made that it cannot recover from this crushing defeat, and that England will soon be back to a two party system, with the Conservatives and the Laborites as the main parties. Liberal leaders are by no means accepting such a belief, and are attempting a reorganization of their party.

#### MANY PARTIES IN GERMANY

Before the significance of the German elections can be understood it is necessary to know something of what the leading parties stand for. More than twenty parties figured in the parliamentary elections, but eight of these received more than 90 per cent. of the vote cast. In the presidential elections, there were many party combinations. For convenience the parties can be divided into right, center, and left groups.

At the extreme right in 1924 stood a party that had just gained importance, the Fascists (or Peoples' Freedom, or National Socialist, or National Liberty, or German party). It was entirely opposed to the republican government, to the Dawes Plan, was anti-Semitic and anti-foreign, and favored strong preparedness measures. Slightly less reactionary was the National Peoples' or Nationalist party, the largest and strongest party of the right group. While it was in principle opposed to the Dawes Plan, many of its members consistently supported the various features

of that plan. The peoples' party, while it did not come out definitely for the restoration of the monarchy, was much distrusted by the Republicans, and was, therefore, usually listed with the monarchical parties. It, however, consistently favored the Dawes Plan.

The center group included chiefly the Christian Peoples', or Center, and the Democrat parties. Both of these were definitely republican, and from the beginning endorsed the Dawes Plan. The Center was a strongly Catholic party, among whose membership there was considerable variation of opinion on all other matters. The Bavarian Peoples' party was also Catholic, but stood further to the right than the Center party. The strategic position of these center parties made them very influential, and they had been represented in every cabinet since 1920.

At the left stood the Social Democrat party, which since the War has been the strongest party in Germany. As a party it does not believe the establishment of a socialistic state is practicable at present, so it strongly favors the republican government. The Independent Socialists for a while broke from the main group on this issue, but later rejoined it. The party is favorable to the Dawes Plan, and has co-operated largely with the center parties, and even the Peoples' party.

The Communists at the extreme left naturally opposed everything that the moderate parties advocated, and have on numerous occasions voted with the monarchists against the republican groups.

An interesting, but rather simple system of proportional representation is used in electing members of the Reichstag. Each party nominates a ticket in each of the thirty-five "circumscriptions" into which Germany is divided. The voters express their choice not of men, but of parties, and for every 60,000 votes cast for one party in any circumscription, one candidate on that party ticket is elected. The balances remaining over on each party vote after their representatives have been chosen in each district are totaled, and additional representatives allotted to each party for each additional 60,000 votes from a national ticket nominated by the party. The total membership of the Reichstag is thus determined by the number of voters in any particular election, and has varied in the last five years from 466 to 493.

#### TWO REICHSTAG ELECTIONS IN GERMANY

Numerous cabinets had been formed in Germany since the election of 1920. Marx, of the Center party, had formed a cabinet in November, 1923, including most of the former body, even the former chancellor, Stresemann, and taking in representatives of the Center, Bavarian Peoples', Democrat, and Peoples' parties. This ministry was attacked from both sides, by Nationalists and Socialists, who had forced the repeal of martial law, and then demanded the withdrawal of the emergency powers held by the cabinet. The Reichstag would have expired in June, but Marx felt unable to carry on, so it was dissolved, and the elections moved up to May 4th. The questions of retaining a republic or reverting to a monarchy and



of the acceptance and carrying out of the recently drawn up Dawes Plan were uppermost. Great popular interest was aroused in the election, and about 29,500,000 votes were cast. Four hundred and seventy-two members were elected, and so adequately did the proportional representation system work out that in no case was there a variation of more than 1 per cent. between the proportion of the popular vote of any party and its representation in the Reichstag.

The voting resulted as was expected in a drift to the extreme parties, but not so great as was anticipated, or as was indicated in the analyses made by many alarmists. The right parties had in the election of 1920 carried 27 per cent. of the popular vote: this time they carried 36 per cent., the new party at the extreme right carrying 7 per cent. and the Nationalists making a considerable gain. The Center parties dropped from 30 per cent. to 23 per cent. of the total vote. The Majority and Independent Socialist parties had together received 41 per cent. of the vote in 1920, and their proportion now fell to 21 per cent., while the Communists who had been practically negligible in 1920 with only 2 per cent. of the vote, now attained 13 per cent. About 7 per cent. of the vote was scattered among various smaller parties.

The Marx government, realizing the increased strength of the Nationalists, negotiated with them for some days, looking to including some members of that party in the cabinet, but these negotiations fell through. Marx resigned, but was recommissioned, and appointed the same cabinet that he had previously had, and with the backing of the Social Democrats, who did not enter the cabinet, but, nevertheless, supported it to some extent, he was able to obtain a vote of confidence by a safe majority.

While there was no change in the ministry as a result of this election, two things had been definitely settled. The parties supporting the Dawes Plan, including the Peoples', Center, Democrat, and Social Democrat, had received considerably more than 50 per cent. of the popular vote. Furthermore, the outspokenly monarchical parties had obtained only 27 per cent. of the vote, and even though the Peoples' party, with its equivocal position, was included, the monarchists could claim only 36 per cent., together with some little support from the minor parties.

The four parties represented in the Marx-Stresemann cabinet, however, represented only 32 per cent. of the Reichstag, so that it was always necessary in order to command a majority to gain the support of either the Nationalists or the Socialists, in addition to some of the smaller parties. This the cabinet was for a time able to do, and much progress was made toward putting into effect the various provisions of the Dawes Plan, and conditions in general seemed to be improving. The Nationalists and Socialists, however, demanded seats in the cabinet. Inasmuch as Centrists and Democrats declared against receiving Nationalists into the cabinet unless Socialists were also received, and as the Peoples' party opposed the admission of Socialists, Marx, on October 20th, gave up the task of reorganizing the cabinet in accordance

with the existing Reichstag. The Reichstag was dissolved, and new elections called for December 7th.

In this second 1924 election the party programs were very much as they had been in May, and the foremost issues were similar, republicanism against monarchism, and fulfilling the requirements of the Dawes Plan and other international obligations against a policy of haughty defiance. It was generally remarked in advance that interest in the election was slight, and that a much smaller vote would be polled than at the earlier election. Yet the December vote exceeded that of May by nearly a million, and the membership of the Reichstag was increased by twenty-one. No very great change appeared in the composition of the Reichstag, but the decrease of the extreme right party from 7 per cent. to 3 per cent. of the membership and of the Communists at the extreme left from 13 per cent. to 9 per cent. made possible a gain of 1 per cent. for the center group and of 6 per cent. for the Social Democrats.

The changes in party representation in the Reichstag were not sufficient to solve the problem of the reorganization of the ministry. The alternatives were the same as they had been before the election, and the obstacles the same. The Social Democrats had made the greatest gain of any party, and probably the most logical development would have been to include them in a new government with the Center, Democratic, and Peoples' parties, thus forming a coalition of the parties that wholeheartedly accepted the Dawes Plan, but Stresemann's Peoples' party refused to serve if the Social Democrats were to be included. Marx resigned rather than invite Nationalists to co-operate with him, but was persuaded to continue in office over the holiday season. His later attempts to form a cabinet had no greater success, and on January 9, 1925, he again resigned.

Within a week a new cabinet had been formed under a non-partisan, Dr. Hans Luther, formerly mayor of Essen, and minister of Finance in the retiring cabinet. Luther succeeded in gaining at least some degree of co-operation from all the major parties except the Social Democrats and the Communists, and although the Democrats refused to vote for or against him, he obtained a vote of confidence by 246 to 160. His is the first ministry since the founding of the republic in which Nationalists have been represented. The influential position of the Nationalists was from many quarters viewed with alarm, but the Nationalists have no more attempted to carry out their whole policy than the Socialists when in control attempted to carry out theirs. Indeed, Maximilian Harden, the noted German publicist, has pointed out the real advantages that have come to the republican cause in Germany as a result of the Nationalists accepting cabinet positions. They have for the first time, he points out, recognized that the republican constitution of 1919 is the legal basis of Germany, "that any attempt to change the constitution by violence or illegal measures is high treason....that the aim of the foreign policy is a real and lasting peace among all nations....that the London agreement and the Dawes Plan must be loyally carried out."

## GERMANY'S FIRST PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS

Those who felt that the right had gained a dangerous power in the Luther cabinet were soon to have much greater cause for alarm. Frederick Ebert, Germany's first president, died February 28, 1925. He had been elected by the Constituent Assembly in 1919, and in 1922, in spite of the law providing for popular election of the president, the Reichstag had extended his term to June 30, 1925. The law of 1920 provides for the election of the president by direct universal suffrage, a majority of the popular vote being necessary for election on the first ballot. In case no candidate receives a majority, a second election is held, in which a plurality elects. As there is no vice-president the election must take place shortly after the death or resignation of a president, so the Reichstag arranged for an election to be held on March 29th, and if necessary a second election on April 25th.

Seven parties presented candidates for the presidency. There was only one coalition of importance, that of the Nationalists and the People's party, together with smaller right parties, who united in support of Dr. Jarres, mayor of Duisburg and ex-vice-chancellor. Other attempts to form coalitions failed. Otto Braun, former premier of Prussia, of the Social Democrat party and ex-chancellor Marx, of the Center party, were other prominent candidates. For the most part the same issues were discussed in this campaign as in those of 1924. It seemed certain from the beginning that no candidate would receive the necessary majority, and as a result interest in the election was not great, and only 26,856,000 votes were cast, less than 90 per cent. of the vote in December. Jarres received the largest vote of any candidate, nearly ten and a half millions, an increase of 5 per cent. over the combined vote in December of the parties now supporting him. Braun had a vote of nearly eight million, the Socialists having a slightly larger percentage than in the previous election. Marx of the Center, Hellpach of the Democrats, and Held of the Bavarian Peoples' party polled the same percentage of the vote as their parties had obtained in December. Ludendorff received scarcely 1 per cent. of the popular vote, and it would appear that his party of the extreme right, somewhat threatening in May, 1924, need no longer be reckoned with. Thaelmann, the Communist, fell one-third below the Communist vote of December. No party had obtained even 40 per cent. of the total vote, so preparations were immediately begun for the second election, to be held four weeks later.

The right parties, in their search for a candidate with greater personal drawing power than Jarres, were finally successful in persuading the veteran Marshall von Hindenburg to enter the race. The Bavarian People's party joined the coalition in his support, and Ludendorff withdrew. The Center, Democrats and Social Democrats reformed the coalition that had been so influential much of the time since the formation of the republic, and rallied to the support of Marx. This left only the Communists out-

side of the two great coalitions. Much greater interest was shown than in the preceding election, and much campaigning was done. The left group pointed out the danger to the republic that the election of Hindenburg would bring, as he was known to be sympathetic with the monarchical idea and, of course, stood as the personification of the old régime. The vote was the largest yet cast in Germany—in fact, the largest vote ever cast in an election anywhere—30,352,000. The right parties had made a further gain, and Hindenburg received 48.3 per cent. of the vote. Marx followed closely with 45.3 per cent., while Thaelmann's percentage was 6.4.

It is by no means clear how far the election of Hindenburg is to be interpreted as an endorsement of the more extreme tendencies of the right party. Certainly the personality of Hindenburg brought support to the right that it had not been able to obtain before. But Hindenburg's popularity was due not only to his connection with the monarchy and the militarism of the old régime, but to a very general appreciation of his personal honor and probity. In the campaign he and his followers had continually emphasized their support of the republic, and his utterances on taking up his position were clearly republican. His scrupulously careful conduct in office has in no way threatened the continuance of the republic or the carrying out of the Dawes Plan, and, aside from a temporary flurry at the time of his election, there has been no change in attitude on the part of other nations. Indeed, his election is being interpreted by many as a further guarantee of the republic, committing the right parties to the support of the republic even more definitely than the assumption of power by the Luther cabinet. In any case, it must be kept in mind that not even the personality of Hindenburg was able to obtain for the right parties a majority of the popular vote.

## RADICAL VICTORY IN FRANCE

France has a system of proportional representation, adopted in 1919, but differing from other proportional voting schemes. The country is divided into electoral districts, each returning from three to six deputies. Each party presents its ticket in each district with a number of names equal to that of the deputies to be elected. All candidates, however, who receive a majority of the votes in their districts are elected, so that all candidates on one ticket, providing they receive 50 per cent. of the votes, may be elected. If no ticket receives a majority in the district, there is a division of the seats among the parties such as is common in proportional voting systems.

This method has encouraged the formation of blocs. Combinations of parties have, of course, been necessary to maintain ministries in a country with so many political parties, and have sometimes existed for long periods, but this new law has encouraged the formation of blocs for the campaigns. A Bloc National was formed in 1919 to take advantage of the new law, consisting of Liberal Actionists or Clericals, Progressists, and Republicans of the Left, together with the more chauvinistic Radicals. Other attempts to



form groups were not so successful, and the Bloc National gained in the election of 1919 and held to 1924 a large majority of the Chamber of Deputies, and remained intact for the 1924 election.

There could be no hope of success against such a combination, except by the formation of some similar combination. Such a bloc was formed by the combination of the United Socialists and other small socialistic parties with most of the Radicals, and what had been before the war the prosperous Radical Socialist party. This was known as the "Cartel d'une minute," and meant, as Socialists have explained, not a giving up of Socialistic ideals, but merely a temporary combination with the related left groups to defeat the bloc of right parties.

These two blocs included all of the French parties except the Royalists at the extreme right, and the Communists at the extreme left. This considerably simplified the issues, making this election seem much like the usual election in England or the United States with two major parties.

Since January, 1922, Poincaré had been premier of France. He was forced to make a readjustment of his cabinet in April, 1924, retaining only two members of the old cabinet, and thus was able to remain in power. The increase in the cost of living, the decline in the value of government bonds and the increase in taxes all roused opposition to the government, especially the latter, as it seemed to indicate that there had been a failure to "make Germany pay" and that, therefore, the French themselves must. Poincaré's international policy, many seemed to feel, had not succeeded, and new and perhaps less severe hands should be given an opportunity. It was felt, too, that Poincaré and his government had been too severe in the repression of opposition at home, dismissal of state officials, etc. It was along such lines as these that the left bloc made its plea, although the leaders all made it clear in regard to their dealings with Germany that there could be no withdrawal from the Ruhr without adequate guarantees. The left pledged itself to the wholehearted carrying out of the Dawes Plan, and especially to the defense of democracy in France.

In the balloting on May 11th, the right bloc received almost as large a popular vote as in 1919, about 45 per cent. of the total, and the left bloc only a slightly larger vote than the parties now composing it had then received, or about 42 per cent. of the total. The vagaries of the compromise system of proportional representation had helped the right bloc obtain its great majority in the Chamber in 1919; this time they made it possible for the left to obtain a larger representation than the right. The Communists elected twenty-six deputies, nineteen of them from Paris, where about 40 per cent. of the votes were for the Communist candidates. Poincaré was thus left without a majority and resigned.

Interesting as this election was from the standpoint of the issues involved, and from the fact that it was largely a contest between two groups, its greatest interest probably is in its effect on the presidency of

France. The president of France is elected for a period of seven years; his position is much like that of the king of England; and he is ordinarily considered as removed from all factional strife. Millerand, who had served about one-half of his seven-year term, was an exceedingly active and ambitious man, and—it was claimed by those who had triumphed—had not confined his activities to such non-partisan affairs as the president should be contented with. The left bloc took the position that he had thus violated the constitution, and no member of that bloc being willing to accept the premiership so long as he continued as president, a deadlock was created. Millerand at first refused to resign, but, after adverse votes, in the Chamber by 329 to 214, and in the Senate by 154 to 144, saw the hopelessness of his position and presented his resignation.

Doumergue was elected as his successor, and promptly called in Eduard Herriott, leader of the Radical party, to form a new cabinet, and soon the government was functioning again. Herriott's cabinet was made up entirely of Radicals of various types, as the Socialists decided to stand by the principle that they had frequently, but by no means always adhered to, that they will not assume office in a cabinet that is not controlled by Socialists.

In April, 1925, Herriott resigned, forced out by increasing opposition in the Chamber and especially in the Senate. He was succeeded by Painlevé, whose cabinet includes such striking personalities as Briand and Caillaux. The members of the new cabinet, however, come from the same Radical groups from which the Herriott cabinet was recruited, and the former premier himself has been made president of the Chamber of Deputies. The Socialists have supported all the major projects of the Herriott and Painlevé ministries, so that in effect the "Cartel d'une minute" has continued, although the Socialists have held no cabinet positions. Without the Socialist support the Painlevé-Briand-Caillaux ministry cannot continue.

This election, then, has been of particular interest because of the shift to the left in the control of the French parliament, and more particularly because the party that succeeded in gaining a majority in the Chamber has also forced the president to resign. It raises the interesting question as to whether this procedure will become a precedent, and presidents will resign on the election of a Chamber with a hostile majority, thus doing away with the secure tenure of office that has been characteristic of the French presidency. Or perhaps Millerand's experience will serve as a warning to future presidents, to be particularly careful not to go beyond the traditional bounds of their position.

#### MUSSOLINI CONTINUES IN POWER

Of the election held in Italy on April 6, 1924, not much needs to be said. Mussolini and his Fascisti have been in complete control of Italy since November, 1922.

In Italy a proportional voting system was adopted in 1919, and in the elections of that year and of 1921 the result was a division of the deputies in the cham-

## EUROPEAN ELECTIONS OF 1924 AND 1925

## ENGLAND

|      |    |              |                |                     |
|------|----|--------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 1923 | 10 | Labor<br>191 | Liberal<br>155 | Conservative<br>259 |
| 1924 | 11 | Labor<br>151 | Liberal<br>40  | Conservative<br>413 |

## GERMANY

|          |                       |   |                        |                 |                |  |                           |                        |                    |               |
|----------|-----------------------|---|------------------------|-----------------|----------------|--|---------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|---------------|
| 1920     | 11                    | Socialist<br>Independent<br>81          |                        | Majority<br>112 | Democrat<br>45 | Center<br>68                                       | Bav. P.<br>Peoples'<br>21 | Peoples'<br>62         | Nationalist<br>66  |               |
| MAY '24  | 29                    | Communist<br>62                         | Social Democrat<br>100 |                 | Dem.<br>28     | Center<br>65                                       | BP<br>16                  | Peoples'<br>44         | Nationalist<br>96  | Fascist<br>32 |
| DEC. '24 | 29                    | Comm.<br>45                             | Social Dem.<br>131     |                 | Dem.<br>32     | Center<br>69                                       | BP<br>19                  | Peoples'<br>51         | Nationalist<br>103 | Fas<br>14     |
| MAR. '25 | Comm.                 | Social Democrat                         |                        |                 | Dem.           | Center   | BP                        | Peoples' + Nationalist |                    |               |
| APR. '25 | Comm.<br>(Hindenburg) | Soc. Dem. + Democrat + Center<br>(Marx) |                        |                 |                | Bav. Peop. + Peoples + Nationalist<br>(Hindenburg) |                           |                        |                    |               |

## FRANCE

|      |    |                  |                       |                       |                      |           |
|------|----|------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-----------|
| 1919 | 10 | Socialist<br>90  | Radical groups<br>128 | Bloc National<br>367  | Mon-archist<br>31    |           |
| 1924 | 9  | Comm-unist<br>26 | Socialist<br>107      | Radical groups<br>176 | Bloc National<br>248 | Mon<br>18 |

## ITALY

| Communist |    |           |                   |  |    | ITALY           |             |  |                      |  |  |
|-----------|----|-----------|-------------------|--|----|-----------------|-------------|--|----------------------|--|--|
| 1921      | 15 | 16        | Socialist<br>122  |  |    | Catholic<br>107 |             |  | Conservative<br>275  |  |  |
| 1924      | 16 | Com<br>17 | Soc. groups<br>59 |  | 17 | 12<br>1         | Cath.<br>40 |  | F a s c i s t<br>374 |  |  |

Giolitti Democrat Constitutional Opposition

## FINLAND

|                                    |  |                 |                       |                       |                               |                          |                           |
|------------------------------------|--|-----------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1922                               |  | Communist<br>27 | Social Democrat<br>53 | Farmers' League<br>45 | National<br>Progressive<br>15 | National Coalition<br>35 | Swedish<br>Peoples'<br>25 |
| 1924                               |  | Comm.<br>18     | Social Democrat<br>60 | Farmers' League<br>44 | Nat. P.<br>17                 | Nat. Coalition<br>38     | Swed. Peo.<br>23          |
| 1925<br>(Presidential<br>Electors) |  | Comm<br>16      | Social Democrat<br>79 | Farmers' League<br>69 | Nat. Prog.<br>33              | Nat. Coalition<br>68     | Swed. Peo.<br>35          |

## DENMARK

|      |   |             |                              |               |                    |
|------|---|-------------|------------------------------|---------------|--------------------|
| 1920 | 4 | Labor<br>48 | Independent<br>Liberal<br>18 | Liberal<br>52 | Conservative<br>27 |
| 1924 | 1 | Labor<br>55 | Ind. Lib.<br>20              | Liberal<br>45 | Conservative<br>28 |



## EUROPEAN ELECTIONS OF 1924 AND 1925

## SWEDEN

|      |   |                 |     |         |    |                |    |              |    |
|------|---|-----------------|-----|---------|----|----------------|----|--------------|----|
| 1921 | 7 | Social Democrat | 99  | Liberal | 41 | Farmers' Union | 21 | Conservative | 62 |
| 1924 | 5 | Social Democrat | 104 | Liberal | 33 | Far. Un.       | 23 | Conservative | 65 |

## NORWAY

|      |   |              |    |           |   |              |    |          |    |              |    |
|------|---|--------------|----|-----------|---|--------------|----|----------|----|--------------|----|
| 1921 | 2 | Communist    | 29 | Socialist | 9 | Left Radical | 36 | Agrarian | 17 | Conservative | 57 |
| 1924 | 6 | Norway Comm. | 24 | Soc.      | 9 | Left Radical | 33 | Agrarian | 22 | Conservative | 54 |

Moscow Communist

## JUGOSLAVIA

|      |    |                        |                        |              |                |                   |               |
|------|----|------------------------|------------------------|--------------|----------------|-------------------|---------------|
| 1923 | 29 | Croatian Peasant<br>70 | Slovene Clerical<br>22 | Moslem<br>18 | Democrat<br>52 | Radical<br>22     |               |
| 1925 | 14 | Croatian Peasant<br>68 | Slov. Cler.<br>19      | Mos.<br>13   | Democrat<br>39 | Indep. Dem.<br>21 | Radical<br>44 |

## BELGIUM

|      |   |           |    |          |    |         |    |
|------|---|-----------|----|----------|----|---------|----|
| 1921 | 5 | Socialist | 68 | Catholic | 80 | Liberal | 33 |
| 1925 | 8 | Socialist | 79 | Catholic | 78 | Liberal | 22 |

## HOLLAND

|      |   |                 |    |         |   |         |    |          |    |                      |    |                                |    |
|------|---|-----------------|----|---------|---|---------|----|----------|----|----------------------|----|--------------------------------|----|
| 1923 | 6 | Social Democrat | 20 | Radical | 5 | Liberal | 10 | Catholic | 32 | Christian Historical | 11 | Calvinistic Anti-Revolutionary | 16 |
| 1925 | 6 | Social Democrat | 34 | Rad.    | 7 | Lib.    | 9  | Catholic | 30 | Chris. Hist.         | 11 | Cal. Anti-Rev.                 | 13 |

## NORTHERN IRELAND

|      |            |       |             |             |             |          |
|------|------------|-------|-------------|-------------|-------------|----------|
| 1921 | Republican |       | Nationalist |             | Unionist    |          |
|      | 6          |       | 6           |             | 40          |          |
| 1925 | 1          | Labor | Rep         | Nationalist | Independent | Unionist |
|      |            | 3     | 2           | 10          | 4           | 32       |

Chart showing the representation of the various parties in the popular branch of the parliaments, comparing the 1924 and 1925 elections with the preceding elections. Figures at the extreme left without party names indicate the number of representatives of the minor parties. The heavy lines enclose the party or parties having representation in the cabinets, immediately preceding and as a result of the recent elections.

ber among a large number of parties, with no party strong enough to control. To avoid the possibility of such a division again, and to insure the continuance of Fascisti control, Mussolini had the parliament pass in December, 1923, a modification of the electoral law providing that the party gaining a plurality of the popular vote in the whole country, providing it was more than 25 per cent. of the total vote, should be entitled to two-thirds of the representation. The remaining representation was then to be distributed among the other parties in proportion to the votes cast. Such a system would have been sufficient, it seemed, to assure a Fascisti triumph, but other steps were also taken to assure the government a majority in the new chamber. Meetings of opposition parties were prohibited, the sole right of using posters in the campaign was reserved to the Fascisti, and measures were taken to obtain for the Fascisti the clerical vote by increasing the salaries of priests and bishops, and giving new privileges to theological students. Strong arm methods were also used on the day of the election, it was claimed. The streets were full of black shirts, ballots already marked for the Fascisti were handed out in one town, and in another ballot boxes were destroyed because the Fascisti realized that the vote had gone against them. In spite of discouragements of this sort, over 7,600,000 votes were cast, a million and a half more than had ever been cast before in an Italian election. Milan, the home city of Mussolini and the birthplace of Fascismo, gave Mussolini's party only 50,000 votes against 91,000 for opposing parties, and similar votes were cast by other north Italian towns. But the country vote was strong for Mussolini, and his party gained about 65 per cent. of the popular vote. Thus its vote much more than met the 25 per cent. requirement of the new regulation, and the Fascists were allotted two-thirds of the Deputies, about the same number they would have received without the operation of the new law. No other party received as much as 10 per cent. of the popular vote. The Popular or Catholic party ranked second in strength to Fascismo, and was trailed by three socialist parties, a Communist party and numerous others, twenty in all.

Thus Mussolini apparently scored a great triumph, but there is no reason to believe that the voting represented the real feelings of the Italian people; indeed, the difficulties that Mussolini has since been encountering would seem to afford definite evidence to the contrary.

#### LITTLE CHANGE IN FINLAND

Of the elections in the smaller countries, only brief discussions will be attempted. In four of the northernmost countries, parliamentary elections were held in 1924. The voters of Finland chose, on April 1st and 2d, a new parliament differing in no great degree from the retiring one, but showing a very slight veering toward the right. As a result, the left wing had 78 representatives, 60 Socialists and 18 Communists, the greatest change being in the representation of the Communists, who had previously had 27. The National Progressive party and the Farmer's League,

Center parties, had together 61 members, and the National Coalition and Swedish Peoples' party, constituting the right, had the same number. The right and the center groups each gained one representative over their strength in the previous parliament. As a result the bourgeois parties of the right and center combined to form a ministry under Professor Ingman, who, it is interesting to note, held the Ministry of Education along with his premiership. Before the year was over the ministry was reconstructed under the same premier, but without the Farmers' League.

In January, 1925, another general election was held for presidential electors. In the electoral college the proportional strength of the Communists was cut to about half of what it was in the parliament, and the Social Democrats also lost, so that the left group had only 31 per cent. of the strength there, against 39 per cent. in the parliament. Dr. Relander, of the Farmers' League, was chosen by the electors as president in February.

#### DISARMAMENT ISSUE IN DENMARK

Significant among the elections in smaller countries was that held in Denmark in April, 1924, for the choice of the Folkething. A Conservative and Liberal government, which had held office since 1920, was overthrown, largely through losses suffered by the Liberal party, who lost seven members to the Laborite or Socialist party. This Laborite party, with 38 per cent. of the popular vote, obtained 55 of the 149 seats, while no other party had more than 44. Thorvald Stauning, as a result, has become premier at the head of a Laborite cabinet. The support of the Independent Liberal party, with 20 seats in the Folkething, is absolutely necessary to the Laborites, who even then have a bare majority, so that the position of Stauning in that respect is not very different from that of the first Labor premier in England.

The Labor platform called for a capital levy, beginning with comparatively small fortunes, but the most striking thing about its program is the plan to abolish the army and navy. The army has not been popular in Denmark, and the weakness of Germany and Russia is cited as lessening the necessity of a Danish military establishment. It is argued further, that Denmark could not possibly maintain an army and navy adequate for the protection of the long and irregular frontier, and that, therefore, the army and navy might well be abolished, and a police force substituted. Further endorsement of this project came in the fall, when elections for the upper house, participated in only by citizens thirty-five years old or older, showed a distinct swing to the left. Such a disarmament bill was promptly introduced at the opening of the Rigsdag in October.

#### BRANTING RETURNED TO POWER IN SWEDEN

The influence of the Danish disarmament agitation was felt in Sweden and the paramount question in the election there on September 22, 1924, was that of expenditure on the army, though there was no demand for its abolition. Probably in no European country was the issue so clearly fought between two men—both real leaders in their country. Trygger, a Con-

servative, who was in control of the ministry, was definitely opposed to the demands of labor, and favored a large budget for the army. Branting, leader of the Social Democrat party of Sweden since its foundation in 1886, president of the Labor Office of the League of Nations, and twice since the war premier of Sweden, on the other hand, favored a gradual socialization of the state, and a gradual elimination of militarism.

In the balloting Branting's Social Democrats obtained 104 of the 230 members of the lower house of the Riksdag, five more than that party had previously held, while Trygger's Conservative party obtained 65, a gain of three, and there were small changes in the other parties. Trygger, without awaiting a meeting of the Riksdag, resigned, and Branting formed a social Democrat cabinet. Since Branting's resignation and death his adherents have continued his policies, but they can remain in power only with the co-operation of the Liberals. Social Democrats and Liberals have been united, however, in their desire for a big cut in the military budget, and in the summer of 1925 succeeded in carrying legislation decreasing the military establishment by about one-third.

#### CONSERVATIVE TREND IN NORWAY

In the Norwegian election of October 20, 1924, no single issue dominated as in the other Scandinavian countries. In July the Berge ministry had been overthrown when it asked for a repeal of the prohibition law, and for the adoption of a regulated trade in alcoholic beverages, largely as a revenue measure. A bill providing for these things was defeated partly by the activities of Communists and Radicals. The latter were led by Dr. Mowinkel, who became premier following Berge's overthrow, and was pledged to maintain the liquor law. In addition to the continuance of prohibition, other issues in the campaign touched the various demands of the Labor party and the reform of the national finances. The vote does not seem to have been decisive on any of these questions, and there was no considerable change in the membership of the Storting, except that for a Communist delegation of twenty-nine, there were substituted a Labor party or Norwegian Communist delegation of 24, and a Moscow Communist group of 6. The Conservative party, as previously, returned a much larger delegation than any other party, and the Conservatives and Agrarians, together, have a majority of two, while formerly the left parties had a majority of the same size. It was expected that a combination of the right parties would be effected, and Mowinkel forced out, but he has continued in office.

#### GREECE VOTES FOR A REPUBLIC

There has been no parliamentary election in Greece in 1924 or 1925, and conditions there have been much too confused to make possible any explanation in a brief statement. But it does seem worth while merely to mention, in connection with other popular elections, the triumph of republicanism there. One-third of the members of the assembly elected in December, 1923, were avowed republicans at that time, and the course of events led others to favor a republic. The assem-

bly on March 25, 1924, voted the dynasty deposed and the establishment of a republic, subject to a plebiscite. On April 13th, the people of Greece, in an election surprisingly free from irregularities of any sort, voted by 758,742 to 325,322 for the establishment of a republic. The republic has continued in spite of the numerous changes of government, constitutional and unconstitutional.

#### PASHITCH RETAINS POWER IN JUGOSLAVIA

The first election of the year 1925 was held in the new country of Yugoslavia. Here, as in other of the new countries, parties are formed largely along nationalistic or racial lines, and the chief issue is that of how far the government shall be centralized. The constitution of Yugoslavia is little more than the old Serbian constitution, extended to include the various peoples brought under the Serbian dynasty. This is entirely satisfactory to the so-called "Radical" party, really the right party. This party is led by the veteran Pashitch, who has probably retained more nearly a continuous position of leadership in his country in the war and postwar days than any European leader of the prewar period. The Democrats, led by Davidovitch, have also favored a centralized government, but have been willing to make some concessions in the direction of local autonomy. Among the other parties, much the largest and most prominent is the Croatian Peasant party, under the leadership of Raditch, which has been demanding not only complete autonomy for Croatia, but a republican form of government.

In the Yugoslav government there is a parliament of but one house, the Skupshtina. Pashitch and his Radicals had continued in power after the election of 1923, partly because the leading opposition party, the Croatian Peasants, had refused to attend the meetings of the Skupshtina. Early in 1924 the Croatians changed their method of opposition, and became active in the Skupshtina, and it was largely as a result of this that Pashitch resigned in midsummer. Davidovitch, the Democratic leader, formed a cabinet, which, in turn, resigned in October, Davidovitch stating that his resignation was at the request of the king, who was generally accused by the left parties of taking a more active part in the government than the constitution sanctioned. Pashitch was invited to return to office and, although he asked the Democrats to join his ministry they refused on the ground that they and their adherents had a majority in the Skupshtina, and that Pashitch's appointment was unconstitutional. At the request of Pashitch a royal decree dissolved the Skupshtina, and the new elections were set for February 8th.

The Pashitch government resorted to strong arm methods. The Croatian Peasant party was declared dissolved, while Raditch and many of his followers were arrested, and, it was charged by the opposition, election tactics such as those used by Mussolini were employed. The result of the election was a considerable strengthening of the Radical party, chiefly at the expense of some of the minor parties, seven parties—including the Communists—losing representation



entirely. There was a split in the Democratic party, a group known as Independent Democrats supporting Pashitch. The important Croatian Peasant party lost only two members, and in spite of the election methods used, barely half of the deputies elected were favorable to the Pashitch government. Pashitch continued in office, however.

The Croatian Peasant party soon after the election announced its complete separation from Moscow, later announced its adherence to the Yugoslav constitution, and in July the world was surprised to learn of its reconciliation with the Radicals, and the reconstruction of the Pashitch cabinet to include five representatives of the Croatian Peasant party.

#### SOCIALIST GAINS IN BELGIUM

Theunis had been premier of Belgium since 1921, with a coalition cabinet representing the Catholic and Liberal parties. The term "Liberal" is misleading, as in Belgium it represents the right party. Regular elections were to be held in May, 1925, but there were such sharp divisions of opinion in both the cabinet and the Chamber of Deputies that the latter was dissolved, and elections set for April 5th. The Catholic party was demanding the introduction of woman suffrage for provincial elections, and gained support from the Socialists, while the Liberals opposed action on the subject.

As a result of the balloting the Liberal party lost one-third of its representation in the Chamber and the Catholics suffered a loss of two members, while the Socialists made a gain of eleven. Premier Theunis presented his resignation the day of the election. It was thirty-eight days before a new cabinet could be formed, and even then the Catholic cabinet headed by Van de Vyvere held office only two or three days. Finally a cabinet was formed under Poulet, former minister of the interior, consisting of five Socialists, five Catholics, and two Liberals, which, on July 2d, received a vote of confidence of 123 to 37. This cabinet is interesting as containing representatives of the three parties, which, together, have 96 per cent. of the membership of the chamber, but as is evident from the vote of confidence, not all members of these parties support the cabinet.

#### RELIGIOUS PARTIES vs. LIBERALISM IN HOLLAND

In Holland an alignment of political parties rather different from the ordinary exists. There has long been a conservative group consisting of the religious parties. This is formed by two important Protestant parties—the Calvinistic Anti-Revolutionary and the Christian Historical—and the Roman Catholic party. There is also a Liberal group which includes the Liberal Union or Liberals and the Radicals or Democrats. The Social Democratic party has been making very rapid growth during this century.

In the 1923 election for the Second Chamber the Catholics gained a much larger representation than any other party, and in conjunction with the conservative Protestant parties controlled a right coalition ministry under Beerenbrouck. The 1925 election marked a considerable shift, all of the conservative parties losing relative strength, but especially the

Catholics. The Social Democrats, on the other hand, made a notable gain, obtaining 31 per cent. of the membership of the chamber, as against 20 per cent. two years earlier. In Holland, as in Denmark and Sweden, the Socialists featured the disarmament issue. The Beerenbrouck cabinet resigned after the election, but was succeeded by another right coalition cabinet, under the leadership of the former finance minister, Colyn, of the Calvinistic Anti-Revolutionary party. In spite of the generally recognized ability of Colyn, this cabinet does not appear to be in a strong position, as the right parties scarcely have a majority, and as there is opposition to Colyn among the more democratic members of the Christian Historical and Catholic parties.

#### UNIONIST LOSSES IN NORTHERN IRELAND

Since 1920 the northern counties of Ireland have had a large measure of home rule, and in 1922 they refused to join the Irish Free State then being set up. In their first election for their own House of Commons, in 1921, forty of the fifty-two members returned belonged to the Unionist party, the party satisfied with the adjustment made with England. The dozen other members were equally divided between the Nationalists and the Republicans. The election held on April 3, 1925, cut down by one-fifth the number of Unionists, but left that party with a clear majority, so that Premier Craig has continued in power. That there is still considerable dissatisfaction in Northern Ireland with the present arrangement is evidenced by the fact that the Nationalists and Republicans together elected twelve members as in 1921, although the Nationalists gained decisively on the Republicans. The beginning of a Labor party, which returned three members, is one of the interesting features of the election.

#### GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

It remains to make some general observations regarding these elections, especially of those features of the European elections that are most interesting in comparison with our own election of November, 1924.

1. The breadth of the suffrage affords an interesting observation. In Germany, Holland, and the four northern countries women voted on terms entirely equal with men, and in England and Northern Ireland a large percentage of the women voted, the voting age being 30 for women and 21 for men. In France, Italy, Belgium, Yugoslavia, and Greece, women were not privileged to vote, but in all countries, there was at least universal manhood suffrage. In England only has plural suffrage survived, and there only to a very limited extent.

2. To Americans accustomed to vote regularly in presidential elections every four years and in congressional elections every two years, the irregularity of elections in European countries is striking. Only in France and Norway had the terms for which the parliaments had been elected expired. In England Parliament had served only ten months. The German Reichstag elected in 1920 had served most of its four-year term when it was dissolved, the May election anticipating by only about a month what would have



been the normal election time, but the Reichstag elected in May remained in power only a few months until its dissolution. The Italian Chamber had been elected in 1921 for a five-year term, and in the smaller countries the parliaments had served an average of little over half of their elected terms.

#### PROPORTION OF POPULATION VOTING

3. Interesting observations can be made of the proportion of citizens of the several countries who have had concern enough in the issues of their elections to cast their ballots. It would be more satisfactory to have statistics of the proportion of those eligible to vote who actually voted in each country, but since such statistics are not available in all cases, percentages of the population according to the last census (1919-1921) who voted are quoted, with a general statement of the requirements for eligibility to vote:

| Country              | Per Cent. of Votes<br>to Population | Voting<br>Requirements     |
|----------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Germany (May, 1924)  | 49                                  | Men and women over 20      |
| Germany (Dec., 1924) | 50                                  | Men and women over 20      |
| Germany (Mar., 1925) | 47                                  | Men and women over 20      |
| Germany (Apr., 1925) | 50.5                                | Men and women over 20      |
| England              | 37.5                                | Men over 21, women over 30 |
| Norway               | 37                                  | Men and women over 23      |
| Northern Ireland     | 30                                  | Men over 21, women over 30 |
| France               | 22                                  | Men over 21                |
| Italy                | 20                                  | Men over 21                |
| United States        | 27.5                                | Men and women over 21      |

There are, of course, particular factors that must be considered in explaining the relatively small vote in United States, such as the fact that so few in the south vote in the November elections. But it is also true that in Indiana, the state where the largest percentage of the population voted, the total vote was only 43 per cent. of the total population, while among the other states the vote reached approximately 40 per cent. of the population only in West Virginia, Kansas, Illinois, Iowa, Wyoming, and Delaware. In the great middle Atlantic states, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, the total was 29 per cent. of the total population.

#### NUMBER OF PARTIES

4. In England and Belgium three important parties contested the election. In France the numerous parties were brought together into three main groups, as were the parties in Germany in the second presidential election, and in Sweden there was a rather definite alignment of the parties into two groups on one main issue. In all the other elections discussed there were at least four or five important parties, while in Germany there were twenty-three parties, twelve of which cast sufficient votes to gain seats in the Reichstag.

Only in Northern Ireland and in the abnormal election in Italy did any one party gain a majority of the popular votes and, except for the Fascist majority in the Italian Chamber and the Conservative majorities in the English and Northern Irish Houses of Commons, no party gained a majority of the seats in any parliament.

#### PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION

5. These elections give much interesting evidence of the use of various schemes of proportional representation. The election in England was the only one in which no form of proportional representation was employed, although the plans used in France and Italy were compromise adjustments. Without arguing the merits of proportional representation or discussing the advantages and disadvantages of having each party of any considerable size represented in the national parliament in proportion to its strength in the country, it can be stated that the proportional representation system has proved successful in gaining for the various parties a representation approximately equal to their proportion of the total vote in Germany and the smaller countries. In England, where the voting was by single member districts, with no use of the principle of proportional representation, the Conservative party with 47 per cent. of the popular vote gained 67 per cent. of the seats in the House of Commons, while the Labor party with 33 per cent. received 24 per cent., and the Liberals with 18 per cent. only 7 per cent. The results in Germany are interesting in comparison with this, where in the May, 1924, election the Fascists received 6.6 per cent. of the popular vote and 6.7 per cent. of the members; the Nationalists, 19.7 per cent. and 20.3 per cent.; the Peoples', 9 per cent. and 9.3 per cent.; the Center, 13.3 per cent. and 13.7 per cent.; the Democrats, 5.6 per cent. and 5.9 per cent.; the Social Democrats, 20.4 per cent. and 21.4 per cent., and the Communists, 12.6 per cent. and 13.1 per cent., and the minor parties a slightly smaller percentage of the representation than of the popular vote.

In France the provision that a party receiving a majority can receive the total representation from that district entirely vitiates the system, as the results of the election in 1924 show, for the Left Bloc actually received a smaller popular vote than the Bloc National, but gained a larger representation in the Chamber. The change made by Mussolini in the Italian law has, of course, made it such a farce, so far as accomplishing the purposes of proportional representation is concerned, that there is no value in studying the results of the Italian election in this connection.

It is interesting to compare with the German results the results of the voting for representatives in some of the American states; for example, in Indiana, where the Democrats received 40 per cent. of the popular vote but elected only two representatives out of the thirteen apportioned to that state, or Kentucky, where the Republicans received 42 per cent. of the popular vote, and elected three of the eleven.

#### TREND OF THE VOTING

6. No single comprehensive generalization can be made regarding a trend to the right or left in these elections. Many observers felt that the English and American elections were evidence that the world was turning away from radicalism to a "safe and sane conservatism." The conservative trend in Germany in 1925 was unmistakable. But in France among the

larger countries, and in Sweden, Denmark, Belgium, Holland, and Greece among the smaller countries, the left parties made notable gains. In Norway and Finland the gains of the right were very slight indeed, and in Italy and Yugoslavia, in spite of the efforts of Mussolini and Pashitch to control the elections, the more liberal opposition obtained considerable strength. As to England, where the conservative victory appeared the most striking, it must be remembered that the Conservative party itself is in many respects liberal rather than conservative, and that the Labor party made a large gain over its strength in the previous election. And even in United States, in spite of the Republican landslide, a left party obtained one-sixth of the popular vote.

#### WILL THE WARTIME LEADERS RETURN?

7. Finally, those who feel that wars, past or future, represent the highest type of accomplishments of mankind could receive little comfort from the 1924 elections. In Sweden and Denmark, reduction of armament was very definitely voted for. In Germany the monarchist-military parties were not able to accomplish the comebacks they hoped for. In France those parties triumphed which have least interest in militarism, and almost all the ex-army officers failed of re-election. While England's most pacific party was overthrown, the Conservative government has not given evidence of any grossly militaristic ambitions.

The 1924 elections, furthermore, removed from leadership in the various countries almost all the survivors among those who were conspicuous leaders in the World War and the peace conferences. The German leaders of the old régime had long since gone, and Wilson, Orlando, Clemenceau, Venizelos, and Lloyd George had followed. Venizelos, it seemed for a while early in 1924, might regain leadership in Greece, but his failure to do so is explained only partly by his precarious health. The party of Asquith and Lloyd George suffered bitter defeat in England. And in South Africa General Smuts was forced into retirement shortly after the passing of Poincaré in France. Bratiano in Rumania and Pashitch in Yugoslavia seemed to be the only important survivors from the war period.

In February, 1925, Pashitch was given a further indorsement in his country, and this was followed by the notable triumph of Hindenburg in Germany. These may represent the beginning of the return to power of the wartime leaders, or they may be merely isolated instances. Or, perhaps, they are offset by the return to a position of leadership in France of Caillaux, whose conduct in wartime was adjudged "little short of treason."

#### BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

Statistics on the various elections have been compiled from reports and articles in many magazines, especially *Current History*, the *American Political Science Review*, *Living Age*, *Contemporary Review* and the weekly edition of the *London Times*. The figures used for England are from the "Final Analysis" in the *London Times*, weekly ed., November 20, 1924, p. 556, and those for France from *L'Illustration*, May 24, 1924, p. 497, and from Ernest Dim-

net's "France under the Herriott Ministry," in *Yale Review*, January, 1925, p. 263. Graham's *New Governments of Central Europe* (New York, 1924) is of much value for backgrounds for Germany and Yugoslavia. The statistics for Norway were furnished by Mr. Arne Kildal, press representative of the Foreign Office of Norway, and those for Sweden, Denmark and Finland have been checked with figures furnished by the legations of those countries in Washington.

#### Notes on Periodical Literature

By GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, Ph.D.

The editor of *Stead's Review* (Melbourne, Australia), in writing of the League of Nations and of Australia's attitude thereto, says: "Unlike America, Australia cannot stand aloof without repudiation of solemn obligations. It is true, of course, that we are bound by the Imperial Foreign Secretary in our dealings with foreign countries, for when the British Empire speaks it cannot speak with a divided voice without intensifying the international confusion. But before the Imperial Foreign Secretary speaks in the Chancelleries of Europe, he is supposed to know the mind of Australia and of the other British Dominions...The truth is, that on few matters of foreign policy has Australia a mind of her own. Responsible to the League of Nations for large mandated territories and pledged to co-operation with the Imperial army and navy in any vast emergency, she has no fundamental foreign policy outside the 'White Australia' policy and a determination to maintain sovereign rights with respect to immigration laws."

In commenting on the close relation existing between diplomacy and business, Alfred L. P. Dennis says, "Fundamentally such matters of international finance and business policy contain the germs of disputes which may grow in angry fashion to excite furious jealousies and even to provoke war. Today the United States has a peculiar and special responsibility. It is the wealthiest country and potentially the most powerful...We are fortunate that dollar diplomacy is no longer fashionable at Washington. But a lively and informed public opinion on the Economics of Diplomacy is our best security against both the honest mistakes and the treacherous temptations to which those who guide our affairs are constantly exposed." (September *North American*.)

The Abbé Ernest Dimnet says: "The problems of France today...can all be summed up in the necessity for peace...and in the restoration of the finances...The Western Pact is less popular in France than the Protocol would have been, and its semi-German origin is not altogether reassuring...Even French schoolboys see clearly that when territorial modifications have been secured...from Poland, Tcheco-Slovakia, and possibly Italy, and when Austria has been allowed to annex itself to Germany, the old pan-Germanic cravings will be stronger than ever, and then there will be once more a question of Alsace-Lorraine...Even now the effort and the money of Herr Roeschling, the Saar magnate, tend to create in Alsace a nucleus of autonomists, the presence of whom is necessary for ulterior action." (August *Nineteenth Century*.)

George H. Fairchild, editor of "The Manila Times," analyses "Our Philippine Problem" in the *Review of Reviews* for September as arising from an imperfect apprehension of the human factors involved and expresses his belief that it will be satisfactorily solved "once our lawmakers obtain an intelligent and thorough appreciation of the actual status of local affairs and the character of the people with whom they must deal. It is only our own hesitancy and vacillation that have complicated matters for us, and these weaknesses are largely the result of inadequate knowledge and negligence."



# The Social Studies in the Eighth Grade

BY PROFESSOR BESSIE LOUISE PIERCE, UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

## GENERAL SITUATION IN THE EIGHTH GRADE

Within the last ten years the social study curriculum has undergone a microscopic inspection and a searching analysis as to its values and its justification in the school program. Efforts of educators have been directed toward determining the character of the information essential for the average citizen and toward the establishment of scientific objectives. To this end Horn, Bagley and Rugg, Wooters and others have undertaken by investigations to clarify the situation.<sup>1</sup> On the other hand, scholars in the different social studies have turned their attention to the demands of "the new education" which was banishing the formalism of the old order and substituting in its stead the freedom of the modernist.

All this, coupled with the growing belief that the social studies are "the core of the curriculum," has led to change. Courses of study have been recast or discarded. A change of emphasis, new aims and purposes, and a search for "objectives" have remodeled existing curricula. The insistence that all education must have a functioning value and the desire to make the social studies a vehicle for inculcating patriotism have likewise played their part.

On the one hand, the demand of the utilitarian administrator has been met by "vocational civics," "economic civics," and courses in "vocations." On the other, laws have been passed requiring the teaching of the Constitution, history, citizenship, and patriotism.

New methods, or old methods in a new garb, have come into vogue. The "socialized" recitation in a variety of forms has appeared, considered by its advocates as best adapted to develop initiative, self-reliance and a social attitude in the pupil. The teacher has been told that persistently excessive teacher-participation in the classroom is an evidence of poor instruction. As a result, many teachers have so completely subordinated themselves that a near anarchism has ensued, undermining the values possible in the new type of work. There is much that the good teacher can give in any method. The socialized recitation is able to accomplish much that its advocates claim, but its success rests, as in all other methods, upon the teacher. Doubtless the best teachers employing the question-answer form accomplish the same results in much the same way as does the teacher using the socialized plan. In any method it is essential that the teacher direct, but it is likewise important that her guidance be of the kind that develops the latent potentialities of the child and that she train the pupil to desire accomplishment. The great fault in the usual question-answer plan has been its failure to do this. The great merit in the socialized work, *properly carried out*, is that it can serve as a device to arouse the pupils to an interest in the

lesson at hand and a sense of their responsibility toward the conduct of the work.

Chief among those influences which have brought about far-reaching changes within the last decade should be mentioned the junior-senior high school movement. A new organization of the subject-matter under projects and problems, and the use of the topical rather than the chronological-event approach, are also found. More than ever before the factor of interest has played a part in determining the subject-matter. This has led to the teaching of more social history than hitherto, reserving a discussion of political and financial conditions to the pupil of greater maturity than that of the junior high school. Among the many problems that have engaged the attention of the teacher has been that of caring for the superior as well as the retarded child and still not neglecting the pupil of average attainments, toward whom most of our school work has previously been directed.

Much has been written also about the need and value of standardized tests, but as yet little has been accomplished. The future, moreover, does not hold out many promises until a greater uniformity in programs and in subject-matter can be brought about. Objective tests, however, seem to have gained in popularity, although they have not displaced the essay form of examination as a test of a pupil's ability at organization. A discussion of testing is included later in this article.

In the eighth grade, the present program of social studies tends to follow the recommendations of the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association.<sup>2</sup> United States history, offered in the first semester, is usually followed by civics, frequently community civics. This is the general practice reported by state superintendents of public instruction in thirty-eight states and would represent the work as carried on in the rural schools and in the smaller cities. There is little agreement as to the period or time when the history courses should start, the inauguration of Washington providing the beginning point for some, Jefferson's presidency, the War of 1812, Jackson, Harrison, and Tyler or the Civil War for others. Usually the seventh grade has given attention to the history of the United States up to the time designated in the eighth grade course.

City systems show less uniformity, because the opportunity for experimentation and change is greater than in the small town. But here, too, the trend seems away from a full year of United States history toward at least a semester of community civics.<sup>3</sup> Courses combining the essentials of the different social studies such as are found in the Rugg pamphlets are being tried in various cities. The new

Denver course is an example, a section of which is included in this article. Although the subject of civics will be given major consideration in a later issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, the discussion of the work in the eighth grade of Indianapolis by Dr. L. D. Owens will show how civics is the fructifying center of the work there, although a course in United States history is offered. The portion of this article by Principal John F. Bailey of the John B. Oliver Junior-Senior High School, Pittsburgh, sets forth the significant points in an experiment of reorganization being carried on in that city. The part of this article devoted to *Aids* includes a statement concerning printed courses of study or syllabi and a brief description of the offerings.

The survey as here presented will show the lack of uniformity as to the work given in the eighth grade. Since community civics is taught in some schools in the grades below the eighth, and in many in the ninth grade, it would seem that the eighth grade in such cases could well be left to an uninterrupted study of United States history of a social and economic character.

It is to be noted that the writer, on the whole, has treated the subject of United States history in the junior high school, leaving a discussion of civics to Dr. H. C. Hill, whose article will appear in the January number. This has been done in order to avoid duplication of materials.

An Excerpt from the Denver Course of Study  
Grade 8B, Unit VI—The History of the Industrial  
Revolution<sup>4</sup>

Note.—The time limit for this unit is nine weeks. Many of the topics in this unit are also treated in Unit II, Grade Seven. In Grade Seven the emphasis is put upon industrial geography. The pupils who take the work for the first time will not have had the work of the previous grade, so it is necessary to include the details in this unit. In another year the duplications can be eliminated.

**Setting:**

1. Stories and pictures to illustrate the changes that have taken place in agriculture.
2. Stories and pictures to illustrate the changes that have taken place in spinning and weaving.
3. Preview of the material to be taken up in the study of the change in industry.

Note.—The purpose of this preview is to give the pupil a general idea of the great changes that have taken place in the lives of people as a result of the industrial revolution.

**Reference:**

Rugg and Schweppe, p. 1-14.

**Notebooks:**

The notebook should be in the form of a scrapbook. Pictures, charts, diagrams, and the like should be included. Pictures that show the contrast between industry before and after the industrial revolution prove very helpful. As many large firms use such illustrations in their magazine advertisements, material is not so difficult to obtain. Booklets and circulars issued by large manufacturing concerns are also helpful.

**English:**

Statements or short paragraphs should be included in the notebook to describe or explain the illustrations used.

**Problem I:**

How did the industrial revolution start in England?

1. Life of the people before 1700.
  - a. The manor.

- (1) Ownership of land.
- (2) Condition of the people.
- (3) Methods of farming.
- (4) Co-operation in industry.

Emphasize that the manor though self-sufficient was a co-operative community.

b. The towns.

- (1) Location.
- (2) Occupations of the people.

Note.—Distinguish between specialization in industry in the Middle Ages and specialization in industry today.

2. The beginning of the industrial revolution in 1700.

a. The beginning of the cotton industry.

- (1) England's desire to hold the trade of the Spice Islands.

b. Protests of the silk and woolen manufacturers.

- (1) Protective laws.
- (2) Increase of the cotton industry.

c. The new invention in spinning and weaving.

- (1) The fly-shuttle.
- (2) Spinning machines.
- (3) Spinning Jenny.
- (4) Spinning mule.
- (5) Power looms.

Emphasize the steps that take place in working out any invention. Show how one invention paves the way for another.

3. Attitude of the workers toward the new inventions.

Opposition to the new machines.

Note.—Discuss the present attitude of people toward new inventions.

4. Discovery of a new power.

a. Use of coal as a fuel.

b. The steam engine.

- (1) Early attempts.
- (2) The work of Newcomen.
- (3) The work of James Watt.

Note.—Excellent pictures and diagrams of the different steam engines may be found in Bachman, Frank P., *Great Inventors and Their Inventions*, and in Forman, S. E., *Stories of Useful Inventions*.

Emphasize that three great strides had been made in industry by the year 1800; namely:

1. Construction of simple machines in the cloth industry.
2. Use of coal as a fuel.
3. Invention of the steam engine.

**References:**

Bachman, p. 87-104, p. 7-24.

Burnham, p. 273-276.

Forman, p. 54-72, 109-124.

Osgood, p. 256-283 (Valuable for teacher).

Rugg and Schweppe, p. 15-38.

**Problem II:**

How did the industrial revolution start in America?

1. Home-life in colonial days.

a. Industries in the home.

b. Self-sufficient life.

Note.—Refer to conditions of pioneer life as brought out in Unit V. Grade Eight.

2. England's restrictions on colonial manufacturers.

a. Refusal to allow machines to be shipped out of England.

b. Restrictions on industry.

Attempt of English textile manufacturers to discourage the making of yarn and cloth in the colonies.

3. Colonial industries.

a. Fishing.

b. Fur trading.

c. Ship building.

Development of a triangular trade with the West Indies and Africa.



Emphasize the fact that the ease with which the colonies could exchange their raw products for what they needed from other countries delayed the industrial revolution in America.

Refer to the condition of land transportation in the colonies about 1800 as brought out in Unit V, Grade VIII.

4. Restriction on trade.

- a. Navigation acts.
- b. Tax laws.

5. Revolt of the colonists against the taxation laws.

Note.—In Unit V the effect of the American Revolution on the Westward Movement is treated. In Unit VI the industrial conditions that brought about the war are treated. In Unit VII the violation of the rights of Englishmen and the growth of the ideal of democracy are treated.

Emphasize that the conditions that led up to the American Revolution made the people depend more and more upon their own resources and thus opened the way for the industrial revolution in America.

6. Introduction of the new machines in America.

Samuel Slater.

7. America's plan to protect inventions.

The first patent law.

Note.—A good account of patents and inventions may be found in Judd and Marshall, *Lessons in Community and National Life*, Series C, p. 97-104.

8. The cotton gin.

- a. Eli Whitney.
- b. The revival of slavery.

Note.—Refer to the reasons why the Southern planter moved west as brought out in Unit V, Grade VIII. In Unit V the expansion of slavery into the new territories is shown. In Unit VI the effect of the invention of the cotton gin on slavery is shown. In Unit VII the political side of the slavery question is stressed.

9. The beginning of centralization in industry.

Lowell's mill.

Note.—Bring out the advantages of the centralization of industry. Emphasize the effect of the Westward Movement on industry. Stress the fact that the Westerner had a large purchasing power and that the Easterner became the manufacturer while the Westerner became the producer of raw products. Thus specialization in various sections of the country started in.

Refer back to the development of transportation between the East and the West as discussed in Unit VI, Grade VIII. Connect the material of this Unit with that of Unit V as much as possible. In this way the topics previously studied are frequently reviewed and seen from various angles.

References:

- Bachman, p. 105-120.  
 Beard and Bagley, p. 290-293.  
 Burnham, p. 277-278.  
 Rugg and Schweppe, p. 39-57.

Then follow other problems in similar form:

Problem III, "How did the American government try to protect the new industries?"

Problem IV, "How have inventions helped to supply the necessities of modern life and to make it more comfortable?"

Problem V, "How did the new inventions bind together the markets of the East and West?"

Problem VI, "How has man progressed in the use of power?"

Problem VII, "How did the change in industry affect the lives of the people?"

Problem VIII, "Why did America make such rapid industrial progress?"

Problem IX, "How did the industrial revolution affect the worker?"

General Summary.

# TYPICAL EXPERIMENTAL EIGHTH GRADE WORK IN INDIANAPOLIS AND PITTSBURGH

## Training for Citizenship in the Indianapolis Schools described by

L. D. Owens, Director of Civics, Indianapolis

The organization of the social studies in the Indianapolis schools is designed to teach a subject-matter which should make the pupils better citizens. They are impressed with the fact that they are now citizens of the school, neighborhood, city, state, and nation, and that it is their duty to learn what responsibilities are incumbent upon them. They are expected not only to learn those things which provide for intelligent citizenship, but also to acquire habits of good citizenship. The school provides the social group in which many problems arise incident to its members living together, hence the school serves as a veritable laboratory for training in citizenship.

The pupils of the eighth grade, being older and more advanced, are looked to for leadership in all lines of school activities. Therefore, it is needless to say that they are afforded excellent training in civic virtues. They are made to feel that the school is theirs and that its excellence depends upon the character of the citizenship of each member of the group.

In addition to the work done in the civics classes, much of the work in other subjects of the curriculum has a civic trend. History is taught with the thought in mind that citizenship values must be obtained. The teaching of arithmetic affords an opportunity to teach the financial needs of the government and how they are met. Problems are made concerning the building of streets, the landscaping and beautifying of parks, and many other civic activities. The art classes do much work in home designing. In fact, a part of their work is called "a course in civic art." The art classes are depended upon to prepare posters, announcements, and pictures in putting on drives and campaigns in the schools. In Indianapolis, geography is taught as a social subject and is made to supplement the work in civics. The course in reading includes much that affords informational and inspirational civics material. Subjects which require some study of civic problems are frequently assigned to the pupils in the composition classes. The English and civic teachers find that co-operation in this way is mutually helpful. The recreational work also gives the schools an excellent opportunity to teach co-operation, leadership, and an intelligent following of leaders.

Added to the class work in citizenship and the incidental work done in connection with all other subjects in the curriculum, is that which is called organization work. The eighth year pupils are organized into civic clubs or leagues. In these organizations all the problems of the schools, as well as those of the groups, are considered and handled as they arise. If a campaign of some kind is to be launched, it is here that all the plans are made for carrying it out. Recently, a "thrift campaign" was put on in all the schools of the city during what was called "Thrift

Week." The eighth year civic clubs were assigned the work of making the plans and putting them into execution. Each club selected certain pupils to make posters for advertising purposes, others were selected to prepare talks and give them before the pupils of the other grades. Similar work is done in "fire prevention," "clean-up," "better English," and other campaigns.

Recently the superintendent of city parks requested that the schools do something to create a better attitude of the public toward the parks. He complained that many people, especially the young men and boys, were guilty of destroying shrubbery, flowers, lights, and other public property in the parks. Some of the civic clubs were called upon to consider his request. A few of the best speakers in these clubs prepared talks under the direction of the civics and English teachers, to show what the city was trying to do for the people in providing parks and why it was necessary that all should respect and appreciate them. These speakers went to each elementary school in the city and spoke to the pupils. No doubt much good resulted from the campaign.

In these club meetings, plans for beautifying the school grounds, conduct on the playgrounds, and management of the pupils about the school buildings are discussed and perfected, and arrangements made for carrying them out. Boys are selected to act as traffic policemen at dangerous corners when the pupils are going to and from school. These boys are given recognition by the police department of the city.

Not long ago one of the large schools in the city was being annoyed frequently by a group of loafers around a drug store on the corner across the street from the school. The civic league of the eighth grade pupils sent a committee to the proprietor concerning the matter and the nuisance was stopped. In one of the schools, in which a large number of the boys of the eighth grade carried papers before and after school, a question of licensing bicycles by the city was taken up. These paper carriers, almost all of whom rode bicycles in making their deliveries, thought that newsboys should be exempt from paying this tax. The civic club decided to send a representative to a meeting of the city council to ask that newspaper carriers be relieved of this burden. They were given a hearing and their request was finally granted. The eighth grade civic league in another school decided to ask the park board to purchase and set aside a small wooded tract nearby for a park. Their request was received and is being given consideration by the park board.

The problems of discipline are taken up in these leagues and offenders are given a hearing. If deserved, punishment is meted out to the guilty ones. Many times it is necessary for the teacher to make a plea for the offenders to prevent them from making the punishment too severe.

These civic organizations have brought about a change in the atmosphere of the schools. Discipline has ceased to be a problem. The pupil, inclined to become unruly, finds public opinion of the school so

strongly opposed to what is contrary to good citizenship in the school community that he dares not follow his inclination. Pupils feel that they are having a hand in the management of their school. They feel that they are a factor of some importance and that their opinions and ideas count for something. The schools are little democracies, whereas not so long ago they were absolute monarchies. If what the pupils say and what they do mean anything, they now think the school is a good place in which to be.

Self-government, in most of the schools, has become a reality without burdening the teachers and pupils with a lot of governmental machinery. The boys and girls are coming out of the elementary schools, as a result of their studies in citizenship and the practice of its virtues, better prepared to take their places as citizens of the city, state, and nation.

The Social Study Curriculum in the  
David B. Oliver High School of Pittsburgh  
described by  
John F. Bailey, Principal

The David B. Oliver Junior High School of Pittsburgh is engaged in an attempt to work out a reconstructed course in the social studies. It is the desire of those engaged in this experiment to make the work included in this course comply with the spirit and purpose of the junior high school. It is believed that a reconstruction of the present courses in this division of junior high school work is essential if anything approaching adequate results are to be obtained. In connection with the reconstruction of this course, it is to be observed that the social studies in the junior high school shall be a constant amount composed of cumulative units of work.

The details of this unit of work in the experiment at Oliver Junior High School have been organized under groups of problems. It is hoped that those who read this brief description will see that the many different details mentioned do constitute, when taken together, a problem—a problem that has fundamental significance in adult present-day life; a problem that has a particular connection with present pupil school life. The problems of all the grades, when taken together, should show sufficient relation to each other as to make the unity of the work covering the three years, at least recognizable. The problems assigned to a grade of the junior high school have particular reference to the status of the pupils of that particular grade. An important part of the experiment is the regular, formal recognition by pupils and teachers that the things done in connection with the school are part of the social studies. Certain things done are parts that are participated in by pupils regularly, while other parts can be participated in on occasion, but are subject to observation and discussion throughout the course.

In living the life of a David B. Oliver High School pupil, one, in starting the eighth grade, is permitted to begin making a choice of certain elective subjects. In order to live this part of the David B. Oliver High School life well, we believe that a pupil should have

intimate acquaintance through observation, discussion, study, and participation with the offerings of this school and of other schools within reach.

It is the belief of those working out this reconstructed course that the importance of schools has never been given proper recognition in textbooks of civics, history, or any of the social studies. This course assumes that schools are fundamental in modern civilization, and particularly is this true in civilization that hopes to maintain and perpetuate a democracy. It is believed, also, that a study of schools, school organization, and school offerings, presents a problem not only of value, but of strong appeal to normal eighth grade pupils. Thus, the problem with which we start the eighth grade is the "Organization and Maintenance of Our Schools."

The life of school pupils of other times and places has a strong appeal to our pupils. Unfortunately, textbook makers have passed by the school life of other times with only a sentence or two. If, perchance, the idea is given more space, it is most likely to be found scattered through 300 to 500 pages of text material. Our purpose is to get together such material as may be found in textbooks, and to show the development made in schools, impressing pupils with the importance of living well their school lives. Supplementary references on this topic furnish good material. By selecting and assembling the material from a few books, an opportunity is given for supervised training in making independent investigations and reading with discrimination and good judgment. The offerings that are elective for the eighth grade are pointed out. The work in these courses is observed. The probable value of the courses is discussed. The equipment necessary for doing the work is noted. After making a survey of the offerings of our own school, other neighboring schools, as vocational schools, continuation schools, and other special types of schools, are visited by committee. Their work is observed, and reports made and discussed. Special state schools of the vicinity are observed and their opportunities for serving special groups are noted. Higher educational institutions are located and their offerings are listed. The national schools for military and naval training are given notice. Instances of national support of schools are mentioned and made special topics for committee investigation, report and discussion. The development of schools is shown through collected reviews, readings in texts, and supplementary lists that are used. The schools which children of other lands attend, particularly those closely touched by the Junior Red Cross, are reported on. The schools known about by members of the class who are of foreign birth, or of foreign parentage, are included in the general scheme.

A practical turn at the conclusion of the consideration of this problem can be given profitably to classes of eighth grade pupils by discussing and observing the use and care of school equipment and supplies. Of course, it will be understood by anyone who may chance to read these sentences that only a brief hint

of the multitude of details included in this problem can be mentioned in this report. The same thought must apply to all subsequent problems given either by name or here reported.

The second problem for this year has its center in "Keeping Public Opinion Uniform Throughout America." The point of departure in this problem is the necessity for the varying degrees of co-operation and the ways of keeping informed on questions of importance. We make lists of the ways our school keeps its members informed. The current event aids are examined. The extent of the use of current event aids in our school is given class discussion. Efforts are made to extend the use of current aids and to make their use of greater value.

City newspapers are next considered. Visits are made to one of the city newspaper plants. A pamphlet entitled "The Making of a Newspaper" is used as text material at this point. A study is made of news items, their content, and their feature position in the paper. Clippings illustrating important items are collected and approved ones posted, or inserted in notebooks, with illustrations touching this and other problems. Syndicate news items are noted as an important method of giving wide range to a common interpretation of important events. Magazines in the school library are used for wide circulation of common current literature.

The investigation of the telephone, its development and use, together with a discussion of the proper use, is given as an important factor in consolidating information throughout the country. The telegraph receives similar attention. The radio and its possibilities, together with demonstrations of its use, are treated. One of the best details in this problem is a study of the service and development of the post-office. The history of post lines and roads and the establishment of free delivery and parcel post is so suggestive in possibilities that no discussion of them is needed. The last item in this problem is the importance of general traveling in keeping people residing in one section of this country interested in and informed about the actions of other people in other sections.

The third problem is centered about the question, "How America Gets Along With Other Countries." It is easily seen that this problem is, in a large measure, a reverse study of the preceding problem. The lack of travel, the lack of exchange newspapers, the lack of frequent general correspondence, are noted and listed. National boundary facts are given in detail. The difficulties of language, tariffs, racial and national feelings are mentioned and given significant illustrations. The historic attitude on foreign questions is traced from colonial times to the present, with the changes attending. Instances of this development can be sufficiently shown by reference to Washington's advice to avoid entangling alliances. The Monroe Doctrine, and the settlement of questions by arbitration, the Pan-American Union, the League of Nations, and the World Court, with refer-



ences and illustrations of the importance of each are given and discussed as indications of future relations of America with other countries. News items touching on this last phase of Problem Three are constantly used as a basis for class discussion. It is hoped by treating this problem in such a manner as to show its development from early times to the present, a fuller understanding of the importance of the problem may be gained by a greater number of the pupils.

The fourth problem is a study of the "Disputes for the Settlement of Which Americans Have Gone to War." In the development of this problem the issues which have led to war are listed. The implements and uniforms that were used are given full illustration. The changes in the method of warfare are noted. The effects of war on the business of the times are pointed out. The National Defense Act and present American defense policy are made important points in the solution of this problem. Textbook references and supplementary readings are easily found and are generally available in connection with this study.

Four additional problems of the eighth grade follow the ones mentioned in the brief outline above to complete the year of work. The first problem concerns itself with the making of rules for school, for games, and the making of ordinances for cities and laws for the state and nation. The second additional problem takes up the observance of rules, ordinances, and laws. The third concerns itself with the exercise of the franchise. The fact that pupils vote for many school officials is taken advantage of. It is the business of social study instruction to see that each time pupils cast ballots, they are cast in a way to make them worthy object lessons. The registration of pupils on forms similar to those used by adult electors is a training in participation in the exercise of the franchise. Suggested methods of ascertaining the duties of many different offices, as well as the qualifications of nominees, are made in an attempt to give supervised training in establishing an interest and habit in this essential of democratic citizenship. Throughout the year, as a project type of procedure, at least two of the city government divisions are followed with considerable detail. In general, the eighth grade concerns itself with the study, discussion, and observation of the city council, city mayor, or the city Department of Public Safety.

In concluding this report, it may be said that those who are interested in conducting the experiment believe it will succeed or fail in proportion to the amount of interest developed in the pupils to investigate, observe and participate in important questions of citizenship. If pupils do not become sufficiently aroused at this time with the importance of the problems of the social studies so that they continue to follow them constantly throughout the remaining years of school life and into adult life, the results of this work cannot be assumed to achieve reasonable success. The answer to this type of "standard test" can be known not at the close of the semester's work, but at the end of a decade.

#### A MEASURE OF FACTUAL ACHIEVEMENT IN AMERICAN HISTORY

By Dr. M. H. Degraff

Florida State College for Women

In the course of the Commonwealth Investigation of the social studies, it was found advisable to construct several series of tests comparing the value and validity of the older and newer types of examinations. Among the tests thus constructed was a two-hundred item test of purely factual material in American history covering our country's history from the period of discovery through the World War. For the most part, the material for this test was selected from three representative and widely used textbooks intended for use in either the junior or senior high school. It was not intended that this test should be essentially a standardized test, but that it should partake more of the nature of the carefully planned and well selected objective test as used in the classroom. However, the care with which the items were selected, worded, and prepared, resulted in a test of very high reliability when administered to pupils of the seventh, eighth, eleventh and twelfth grades.

It is not the purpose of this article to enter into a discussion of the validity or reliability of the tests used, but rather to report the extent to which the average pupil of the various grade levels is able to answer correctly questions of fact in American history. The items were presented first in the single-completion or simple recall form and then, from two to five days later, the same items were given to the same pupils in the multiple-choice or true-false form, the number of choices offered ranging from two to seven.

The pupils taking the tests were an entirely unselected group representing the four grades in twenty-seven schools in fifteen cities in eight states. This wide range of talent would seem to insure a representative sampling of the results of our history teaching so far as purely fact information is concerned. Also, a two-hundred item test of facts scattered over the entire period of United States history should give an adequate sampling from which to judge results within the field studied.

If it is granted that the pupils tested and the material used for the test are in truth representative, then the results obtained are certainly worthy of careful consideration. This is especially true if we concede the necessity or the advisability of teaching a certain, definite body of factual material in our history courses. To be sure this last may be brought in question by advocates of the newer methods and objectives in history teaching. On the other hand, it would seem that no matter how we teach our history classes nor what may be the particular objectives set up, there must be at the command of the pupil a certain minimum amount of facts upon which to build. To what extent this minimum is actually covered by the test items used may be questioned, but it must be conceded that there was at least a fair sampling.

It is doubtless true that since the items were selected from but three textbooks (in no case was

there any attempt to definitely check up the extent to which such questions were found in other textbooks), some of the pupils would be at the disadvantage of never having had some of the items presented to them in class exactly as they were presented in the test. In order to minimize this factor, the items were selected with the idea that, in the main, they should represent units of information such that the average pupil should know a large percentage of them. In addition to this care in selecting, all items were submitted to the judgments of six separate graduate students, who had either majored or minored in history, these judgments being made on the basis of the suitability of the questions for history testing.

A sampling of the items used in the recall type of examination is given here that the reader may judge for himself as to such suitability:

1. Christopher Columbus discovered America in the year .....
10. The man who established the first permanent cable across the Atlantic was named .....
20. The two greatest rival Italian cities carrying on extensive trade with the East prior to 1450 were Genoa and .....
30. A slogan of the Spanish-American War was "Remember the ....."
40. The Presidential Succession Act provided that in case of the death of the President and Vice-President, the succession should go in order of rank to the members of the .....
50. President Wilson said, "The world must be made safe for ....."
60. The British seizure of ships and cargoes, in the World War, violated the rules of law known as .....
70. Important discoveries in the new world were made for the Dutch East India Company by an Englishman named .....
80. The war which has been generally condemned by American historians is our war with .....
90. That area of floating vegetation in the central Atlantic which Columbus encountered is known as the .....
100. The man who invented the process of hardening rubber was .....
110. Roger Williams founded the town of .....
120. The most powerful secret organizations formed in the South during the Reconstruction were called .....
130. The English colonies are usually classified in three classes as follows: Royal, proprietary and .....
140. The system which resulted in the division of labor and the formation of labor unions is known as the .....
150. In 1869 the Mississippi was opened as far north as Port Hudson by the capture of .....
160. Open resistance to the British policy of taxation without representation was opposed by the party known as the American .....
170. The merit system is the selection of candidates by means of .....
180. The name given to the political party of 1856, which continues to the present, formed of men opposed to the extension of slavery, was .....
190. The Spanish were lured to the new world by gold, the Dutch by .....
200. The item of national legislation, which has been an important topic of political discussion throughout the history of the United States, has been .....

The second testing was over the same two hundred items with right and wrong answers presented that the pupil might make his selection of what he considered the correct answer.

On the two hundred recall items the average score of right answers for over seven hundred seventh

grade pupils was 26.1 and the average number of wrong answers was 39.2. This means that of the two hundred questions of a purely factual character, the average seventh grade child is able to attempt but approximately sixty-five questions, or less than one-third, and of those attempts, less than half are correctly answered. Since these tests were given at the close of the year, it means that only 13 per cent. of a random sampling of representative facts in American history is acquired by the average pupil of this grade. The number of correct answers ranged from one to seventy-two.

The eighth grade record shows considerable gain, though even here it would seem to be far from satisfactory, since the mean of this group is but 43.1 correct responses out of 92.4 attempts. Less than half of the items are even attempted by the average child and only 21.5 per cent. of the two hundred can be answered correctly.

There seems to be little difference in the average eleventh and twelfth grade pupils, their averages being about 79 correct and 46 incorrect replies. Thus, even after having had history in the seventh and eighth grades and later having the more advanced course in high school, the average student can attempt but 60 per cent. of factual questions and gets but 40 per cent. of the two hundred correct.

It may be of interest to teachers of history to know approximately the amount of time needed, on the average, for such questions. In the seventh grade the mean time consumed was 43.7 minutes for two hundred questions or about four and one-half items per minute. For the eighth grade pupil 42.4 minutes, for the eleventh grade 44 minutes and for the twelfth grade 48.7 minutes are required by the average student. The difference in time needed is probably accounted for in large part by the increased number of attempts.

When the same items were presented in the multiple-choice and true-false forms, the mean scores were higher of course, but when these were corrected for chance in order to eliminate the effect of guessing, the increase was not as large as might be expected. The means of correct answers for the two hundred items follows:

7-response 73.1.

5-response 78.7.

3-response 78.0.

2-response 85.9.

True-false 57.6.

These scores include pupils of all grades since the program was such that it was not feasible to separate the various groups into grade groups on this second testing.

It might be added that the primary purpose of this study was two-fold: (1) to determine the validity of correction for chance by the formula  $S = R - \frac{W}{n-1}$  where S represents the score, R the number of right answers, W the wrong answers, and n the number of choices offered for each question; (2) to determine the effect of instructing the pupil to answer all questions regardless of what he knows as over against



instructing him to answer only those items of which he is reasonably certain. The results in this study point to the advisability of using the correction for chance in obtaining the score, and of instructing the student not to guess.<sup>5</sup>

## AIDS FOR THE EIGHTH GRADE TEACHER

### THE TEXTBOOK IN UNITED STATES HISTORY

The textbook forms the backbone of most history courses. With a good textbook many mediocre teachers are able to give commendable instruction; with a poor one even good teachers labor under a serious handicap. Conditions in American schools have long been such that the most important aid both to teacher and pupil is the textbook; it generally determines the subject-matter of the course, the manner of presentation, and sometimes the attitude of the pupil toward further historical study.

The following list includes many of the textbooks most commonly found in the junior high school, with a statement as to the space allotment to different periods in American history:

Andrews, Matthew Page, *Brief History of the United States*. J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1916. 368 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 109 pages or 29 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 108 pages or 29 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 101 pages or 27 per cent.; 1865 to 1916, 50 pages or 13 per cent.

Beard, Charles A., and Bagley, William C., *The History of the American People*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1923. 662 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 126 pages or 19 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 133 pages or 20 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 174 pages or 26 per cent.; 1865 to 1923, 229 pages or 35 per cent.

Bourne, Henry Eldridge, and Benton, Elbert Jay, *A History of the United States*. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1921. 531 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 136 pages or 25 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 147 pages or 27 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 113 pages or 21 per cent.; 1865 to 1921, 135 pages or 25 per cent.

Burnham, Smith, *The Making of Our Country*. The John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia, 1920. 600 pp.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 107 pages or 18 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 209 pages or 35 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 135 pages or 22 per cent.; 1865 to 1919, 149 pages or 25 per cent.

Evans, Lawton B., *The Essential Facts of American History*. Benjamin H. Sanborn and Company, Chicago, 1920. 564 pp. with appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 175 pages or 33 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 139 pages or 26 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 98 pages or 18 per cent.; 1865 to 1919, 120 pages or 23 per cent.

Fite, Emerson David, *The United States*. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1923. 489 pp.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 134 pages or 27 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 126 pages or 26 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 108 pages or 22 per cent.; 1865 to 1923, 121 pages or 25 per cent.

Forman, S. E., *A History of the United States*. The Century Company, New York, 1915. 424 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 113 pages or 26 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 117 pages or 27 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 132 pages or 31 per cent.; 1865 to 1915, 61 pages or 14 per cent.

Garner, Alfred N., and Henson, Clarence C., *Our Country's History*. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, 1921. 665 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 146 pages or 22 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 157 pages or 24 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 145 pages or 22 per cent.; 1865 to 1921, 217 pages or 30 per cent.

Gordy, Wilbur Fiske, *History of the United States*. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1922. 552 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 129 pages or 25 per cent.; 1775 to 1829, 126 pages or 22 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 117 pages or 21 per cent.; 1865 to 1922, 188 pages or 34 per cent.

Guitteau, William Backus, *Our United States*. Silver, Burdett and Company, New York, 1923. 646 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 143 pages or 22 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 184 pages or 28 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 138 pages or 21 per cent.; 1865 to 1923, 180 pages or 28 per cent.

Hall, Robert Green, Smither, Harriet, and Ousley, Clarence, *A History of the United States*. The Southern Publishing Company, Dallas, 1924. 526 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 129 pages or 25 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 124 pages or 23 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 133 pages or 25 per cent.; 1865 to 1924, 140 pages or 26 per cent.

Halleck, Reuben Post, *History of Our Country*. American Book Company, New York, 1923. 534 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 160 pages or 29 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 151 pages or 28 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 98 pages or 18 per cent.; 1865 to 1922, 125 pages or 23 per cent.

Hart, Albert Bushnell, *School History of the United States*. American Book Company, New York, 1920. 517 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 120 pages or 23 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 125 pages or 24 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 124 pages or 24 per cent.; 1865 to 1920, 148 pages or 28 per cent.

Leonard, Arthur R., and Jacobs, Bertha E., *The Nation's History*. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1924. 548 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 144 pages or 27 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 133 pages or 24 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 97 pages or 18 per cent.; 1865 to 1924, 174 pages or 30 per cent.

Long, William J., *America*. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1923. 531 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 150 pages or 28 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 149 pages or 28 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 87 pages or 16 per cent.; 1865 to 1923, 144 pages or 26 per cent.

McLaughlin, Andrew C., and Van Tyne, Claude Halstead, *A History of the United States for Schools*. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1923. 503 pp. with appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 138 pages or 26 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 150 pages or 30 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 102 pages or 20 per cent.; 1865 to 1920, 113 pages or 23 per cent.

McMaster, John Bach, *A School History of the United States*. American Book Company, New York, 1920. 505 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 110 pages or 22 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 191 pages or 38 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 124 pages or 25 per cent.; 1865 to 1920, 80 pages or 15 per cent.

Mace, William H., and Bogardus, Frank S., *Mace-Bogardus History of the United States*. Rand McNally and Company, Chicago, 1921. 500 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 110 pages or 22 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 117 pages or 23 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 105 pages or 21 per cent.; 1865 to 1923, 168 pages or 34 per cent.



Robbins, Charles L., *School History of the American People*. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, 1925. 581 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 101 pages or 19 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 147 pages or 27 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 128 pages or 23 per cent.; 1865 to 1925, 168 pages or 30 per cent.

Thwaites, Reuben Gold, and Kendall, Calvin Noyes, *A History of the United States*. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1924. 561 pp. and appendix.

Apportionment of space: to 1763, 140 pages or 25 per cent.; 1763 to 1829, 139 pages or 25 per cent.; 1829 to 1865, 125 pages or 22 per cent.; 1865 to 1924, 157 pages or 28 per cent.

The Rugg pamphlets for the eighth grade, being of the series *The Social Science Pamphlets* by Harold Rugg, Earl Rugg, and Emma Schweppe of the Lincoln School of the Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

The first pamphlet tells "the story of the people who lived here long ago, of the discovery of North and South America by the Europeans, and of the settlers who poured into the country pushing back and back, westward across the continent."

The second pamphlet, *The Mechanical Conquest of America*, tells "how both Europeans and Americans invented marvelous machines and changed the way people lived." It also teaches about the "exploitation" of America's resources, how "corporations were created," how labor unions were organized, "how farmers left their farms and crowded into growing cities." The United States and the World War is the last topic.

The third and fourth pamphlets tell of *America's March Toward Democracy*, and *How Nations Live Together*; how for 180 years the English colonists tried to get the privilege of governing themselves; how they separated from England and have learned to govern themselves.

In these pamphlets the effort is made to combine the various social studies.

#### SYLLABI AND COURSES OF STUDY PUBLISHED BY STATE DEPARTMENTS OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

##### *General Courses of Study for Arizona Schools.*

United States History. The first part covers from Jefferson's administration to the close of Johnson's. The preceding periods are taken in the seventh grade. The second part covers from the end of Johnson's administration and includes present-day problems. The course is organized in topical form, with questions to introduce the main points. It treats educational and some social reforms and movements as well as political history.

*Colorado State Course of Study in Education.* Issued by Katherine L. Craig, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1922.

United States History and Civics. The course in history starts with "Political and Territorial Growth of the New Nation," from 1789 to the present time. Civil government is given in this year also. The course in history is largely political. Little attention is paid to economic development or industrial change, and practically none to social life.

*A Course of Study in the Social Studies.* State Board of Education, Hartford, Connecticut, 1924.

Community organization, grades six, seven and eight. The eighth grade themes are the United States in its World Relations, Citizenship, and Connecticut Government: Inherited Ideals at Present.

The work is largely concerned with government, but with more history subject-matter than usual in "citizenship" courses. The work of this grade also includes geography as a social study, but taught as "incidental to history."

Grade Eight History. Grade Theme: The growth of the United States as a National Community, five to eight periods a week if geography is included. It aims to teach the development of our country in a five-fold aspect: economic, cultural, religious, social, political. The course takes up (1) the origin and establishment of our country,

(2) causes and events of the struggle for independence, (3) the critical period and the Constitution, (4) political parties, (5) foreign relations, (6) economic growth and the life of the people, (7) expansion and the frontier, (8) some recent and contemporaneous problems.

It discusses not only political, but cultural, humanitarian and social factors.

*Course of Study for the Elementary Schools of Florida.* Department of Public Instruction, Tallahassee, Florida, 1924.

In Florida the eighth grade completes the study of United States history and takes up also Florida history and civics of the nation and of the state. An outline of the main topics is given. The United States history outline starts with the "Formative Period (1789)" and carries the work through the World War and the Disarmament Conference. It is purely political in treatment and represents the old type of course. The Constitution is taught either with United States history or civics.

*Manual for Georgia Teachers.* Published by the State Department of Education, Atlanta, 1925.

The eighth grade is the first year of high school. The manual recommends that community civics be given. There is no detailed outline.

*Courses of Study and Manual of Methods for the Public Schools of Idaho.* State Board of Education, Boise, Idaho, 1923.

Scope of Work: "The work of this grade begins with the Slavery Question, 1841-1859; Secession and the Civil War, 1860-1865; Reconstruction Days, 1865-1871; then those very definite features that characterize our growth since the Civil War; the New South from 1877 to the present; the New Union from 1865; the very important topic, the United States now a World Power, and our part in the recent war, and finally the consideration of certain industrial, economic, social, and political conditions and problems of the present." Following history is taught civics of the United States and Idaho. Current events are required. It is suggested that attention be directed to events relating to Congress, state legislatures, and local matters in the county, but that the "teacher should studiously avoid the discussion of petty affairs and controverted topics."

*Manual with Courses of Study for the Elementary Schools of Indiana, 1921.* Bulletin No. 47, Department of Public Instruction.

In the eighth grade the course of study takes up:

First term: I—Industrial Development, 1789-1829; II—The Beginning of American Literature; III—Jacksonian Democracy, 1829-1841; IV—Slavery Struggle; V—Civil War, 1861-1865; VI—Social and Industrial Progress, 1829-1865; VII—Reconstruction, 1865-1877; VIII—The United States, 1877-1897.

Second term: I—The War with Spain; II—Roosevelt and the Panama Canal; III—The World War; IV—The Industries, 1865-1920; V—Labor and Capital; VI—Democracy, Education and Literature; VII—The New Construction; VIII—Indiana History.

The course is arranged according to topics. Far more of cultural history than is usually found is given. The federal and state constitutions are taught.

*State of Maine, Course of Study, Outlines of Instruction, Elementary Schools.* Prepared by Special Committee, 1918. (Reprint, 1923.) State Commissioner of Education, Augusta, Me.

Geography. South America, Europe, Asia, Africa, Australia and Pacific Islands. General geography is taught as "a foundation for comprehensive economic geography." Commercial geography and geography of the state of Maine are studied. The course is physical, not social.

United States History. This course starts with "slavery and the development of sectional tendencies," followed by "the growth of the country following the war," the World War and the history of the state of Maine. Maine also gives Citizenship and Government in this grade.

*The Teaching of the Social Studies.* State Department of Education, Baltimore, Maryland, 1924.

The eighth grade is devoted to a study of community civics. The manual for teachers is fully worked out with many facts pertinent to social study teaching.

*Curriculum for Elementary Schools.* State of Minnesota Department of Education, 1923.

Community Civics is taught in both seventh and eighth grades.

The United States history course is called "Developing the Democracy" (from 1789). The work is organized into problems. The manual is more comprehensive in sub-topics than some courses, and is chiefly political in character. It has suggestions to teachers as to important dates and events, measuring results, reference materials, etc.

*State of Mississippi Department of Education, Bulletin No. 29, 1924, High Schools, Jackson.*

In the eighth grade American history and community civics are taught. The course in American history follows the work of the seventh grade which goes through the Revolutionary War. The manual gives only the points to be especially emphasized, and no detailed outline is furnished.

*State Course of Study for the Elementary Schools in the State of Missouri, 1924.*

Civics and Missouri history are taught in the eighth grade. The outline or manual has suggestions for teachers, with the main topics to be discussed, taken in chronological sequence. Terms are given with which pupils should be familiar. References are also suggested.

*State Course of Study, Montana City Elementary Schools.*

Prepared by the State Department of Public Instruction. Helena, Montana, 1924.

The eighth grade begins United States history in 1829. The aims of the year are:

1. To trace the national life of our great democracy to the present.
2. To understand the ideals, institutions, achievements and problems of our country.
3. To increase the power to explain situations affecting the life of our country and its people.
4. To further the stated aims of the course of previous years.

5. To establish those ideals of wisdom and justice in action that shall ever be safe guides in the conduct of life.

In the first half of the year the course covers United States history from 1829 to 1861. Questions given in the manual are typical of many courses, as: "Make a list of the Presidents. How Many?...Which two died in office? Who succeeded them? What one had two terms?"

The outline deals somewhat with education and literature.

From 1861 until after the World War is the second half of the year's work. A list of minimum essentials including battles, facts in regard to the Constitution, compromises and laws, dates, famous men and women, inventions and discoveries, panics and hard times, and political parties are given. The course again is political.

Civics is also given in the eighth grade.

*State of Nevada, Supplement to the 1922 Elementary Courses of Study and the 1923 Textbook Adoptions.* State Board of Education, 1923.

United States History. The outline is very brief and follows Gordy's text. Guiteau's text is used sometimes. The eighth grade work begins on page 148 of Gordy—"Jacksonian Democracy." There is no outline. The manual merely tells where to start and close the work.

*Program of Studies Recommended for the Public Schools of New Hampshire, Grades VII and VIII. Part IV, Social Science.* State Board of Education, 1924, fourth edition.

"United States history from 1815 to date" is included in the course. There is a weekly study of current history. Many personages appear in the outline, which is arranged by topics.

Civics is also given.

*Syllabus of Social Studies for Secondary Schools, Part I.* State of New Jersey Department of Public Instruction, Trenton, 1925.

Three proposals are made for the eighth grade:

1. Community civics throughout the year.
2. A half-year of United States history from the Period of Reconstruction to the present, and a half-year of community civics.

3. Community civics for a half-year, and a world review of geography for the following half-year, if United States history has been completed by the end of the seventh grade.

Note.—"Whatever may be done with civics or geography, United States history should receive consideration during the seventh and eighth grades for not less than five forty-five minute periods per week for the equivalent of a school year of not less than 185 days."

*New Mexico Common Schools Course of Study, 1923.*

History and civics are given attention, three periods a week being devoted to history and two periods to civics. New Mexico government is also taken up. The history course starts with 1850. The outline is not given in detail.

*University of the State of New York, Bulletin No. 694, Syllabus for Elementary Schools, American History, 1923.*

The work of this year in United States history begins with the inauguration of Washington. The outline indicates the major topics with main sub-heads. Although chiefly political, some cultural history is introduced.

*Courses of Study for the High Schools of North Carolina,* State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Raleigh, 1924.

A half-year is devoted to community civics, and a half-year to vocational civics.

*Course of Study for Common Schools, Grades 1-8.* State of Oklahoma Department of Public Instruction, 1924.

Civics is given as well as United States history, which starts in 1815. The outline is based on the adopted textbook, Halleck's *History of Our Country*.

*Course of Study for the Elementary Schools, 1922-1924.* State of Oregon, Department of Education.

The United States history work starts with Washington's administration. Oregon history is given for the first six weeks of the eighth grade. The course is organized in thought-provoking form of questions and topics.

Thirty-two weeks are given to the study of civics.

State Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

Community civics is given in Pennsylvania.

*A Course of Study for the Elementary Schools of Wisconsin,* Madison, 1923.

United States history and civics. In rural schools in even numbered years two-thirds of the time is given to civics and one-third to history. In city schools the work may be divided into two parts. The course is usually political, although it gives some attention to social reform, cultural development, etc. The outline gives main heads and main topics under them, but is not detailed.

#### SYLLABI AND COURSES OF STUDY PUBLISHED BY CITY SYSTEMS AND OTHERS

*The Social Studies, Course of Study for Senior and Junior High Schools,* City of Baltimore, Department of Education, 1925.

In addition to the minimum course all classes are expected to perform some of the suggested activities, or similar ones, and to work out at least two source problems. One-fifth of the time is to be given to current topics, the primary aim of which is "to arouse an interest in civic, political and economic affairs that will persist after school days are over." The eighth grade history takes up the Slavery Question, the Civil War, Reconstruction, Growth of the Far West, the New Industrial Age, Reforms, and Foreign Relations. Teachers' and pupils' references are given after each topic, and there is also a list of source problems to be worked out. Suggestions for five-minute speeches and debates are given. A complete outline is included. Under



each main topic there is a statement as to the topic in general as well as a listing of the purposes of each topic studied. The course is thoroughly worked out.

Course of Study Monograph Number Three, *Social Science*, Grades Seven, Eight and Nine, Junior High School, Public Schools, Denver, Colorado, 1924. Price, \$2.00.

Four units of work are given in the seventh grade, where are treated community life, the life of the American people, the interdependence of modern industrial nations, and the changing agricultural nations.

Grade Eight takes up Unit Five, The Westward Movement and the Growth of Transportation; Unit Six, The History of the Industrial Revolution; Unit Seven, The Growth of American Democracy.

The ninth grade takes up Unit Eight, Forms of American Government and Outstanding Citizenship Problems; Unit Nine, Waste and Conservation of America's Resources; Unit Ten, Immigration and Americanization; Unit Eleven, International Relations.

The attempt is made to organize the subject-matter around eleven large topics to train pupils to think for every-day life. Problems under large units are designed to require solution through the gathering of facts, the evaluation of facts, the selection of facts, drawing of general conclusions when facts are known; also to furnish the economic background necessary for a wise selection of a vocation and to give an appreciation of social and civic ideals of the American people. The content of the course is based on the Rugg pamphlets. In the course, provision is made for pupil activities; there is discussion of the general method of procedure which includes an indorsement of the laboratory method, correlation with English, the use of notebooks, lists for reading, the recommendation of objective tests as a means of measuring achievement, directed study suggestions, the use of current events, debating and dramatization. General standards of attainment are listed; there is also a statement as to general equipment, and how to fit the course to pupils of different abilities.

Omaha Public School Course of Study in *History*, Elementary Grades, September, 1923. Omaha, 1923.

Eighth grade United States history starts with 1840. Problem-setting, with suggestive sub-topics is the method used. Some attention is given to social history and reform. Industrial development is treated without neglect of political history.

Clark, M. G., *Progress and Patriotism*. Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1923.

This course of study reviews the work of the seventh grade. The detailed outline starts with "The wars that established us as a nation in the eyes of the world." Dates and personages are listed for memory work. The course is purely political and is typical of those courses requiring the naming of the Presidents and knowing something about each. The outline takes to the present time, with a booster section on Sioux City.

Course of Study, Washington, D. C.

Geography is given at least three forty-three-minute periods a week.

Attention is directed to different types of maps and to the formation of our continent, but a greater amount of time is devoted to the United States, with a view to showing how the geographic and human factors have influenced its development into a world power, and to what extent our possessions and other countries have contributed to this end. Interdependence of nations is discussed.

There is a provisional course of history for the eighth grade, with civics to be studied with the history. The work is taken up from the close of the War of 1812 to the present. It is the usual type of course.

Francis W. Parker School Studies in Education, Social Science Series. *The Course in History*, Vol. VII. Chicago, 1923.

English history is given here.

The teacher begins work by the introduction of a little elementary economics, as the discussion of the subject of

taxation. Lessons are introduced by questions of thought provoking character.

Pierce, Bessie L., *Courses in the Social Studies for Junior High Schools*. University of Iowa Extension Bulletin No. 97. Iowa City, Iowa, 1924.

The eighth grade course is devoted to a study of United States history, with emphasis upon the social and economic factors. It is organized in topic or problem form, with references for each topic.

#### CLASSROOM DEVICES

##### Dramatization

Doubtless the device most frequently used to quicken interest and to enliven classroom procedure is the dramatization of episodes in history. This scheme has much to commend it, for imitation is natural and the dramatic instinct strong in pupils of junior high school age. An advocate of the use of dramatization in the study of history has said that subjects which cannot be dramatized are unsuited to children in the grammar grades. Such a statement is far too sweeping, but at any rate the dramatization of certain types of historical incidents eliminates the monotony of the same kind of classroom procedure and lends reality and actuality to a subject sometimes said to be dull and uninteresting. In this way the past, romantic and picturesque, is revived; the pupils are the people of whom they read. At the age of the eighth grade pupil, *to do* and *to be* brings reality.

The simplest dramatization is the most beneficial and most instructive. The use of tableaux, the personifying of great persons, and the representation of deliberative assemblies are used frequently and entail the least time and effort on the part of the teacher, although they are as instructive as more elaborately executed plays. Children should be urged to write their own dramatizations, for in this way training in historical investigation is encouraged. Attempts of this kind have been discussed in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, but it is unfortunate that more teachers do not record the results of such undertakings. With a minimum of effort on the part of the teacher, but with a maximum of result, such historical facts as the signing of the Mayflower Compact, the story of the Charter Oak, the Lewis and Clark expedition, happenings in the life of Daniel Boone, the gold rush to California, a school of the colonial period and a school today, the surrender of Lee, and the declaration of war on Germany can be depicted.

The following books, briefly reviewed, may prove suggestive and helpful:

Dalton, Zetta, *Dramatizations of the Declaration of Independence and The Constitutional Convention*.

Tacoma, Washington, privately published.

According to the author these plays have been used in the Tacoma schools for supplementary work for many years. "The Declaration of Independence" is set at Philadelphia, June, 1776, and depicts three sessions of the Continental Congress. "The Constitutional Convention" presents the principal speakers of the sessions, May 29, and September 17, 1787. An epilogue, pointing out facts regarding the signing of the Constitution, closes the incidents.

Hubbard, Eleanore, *Citizenship Plays*.

Benjamin H. Sanborn and Company, Chicago, 1922.

This is an excellent reader for the upper grades. Divided into parts relating to the ideals of our country, its growth,



the activities of government, and good citizenship, it presents interesting incidents adapted to simple dramatization. Plays, such as "The Pony Express," "a Colonial School," "the Homesteader's Christmas," and "The Naturalization of Mr. A. B. C.," illustrate graphically historical facts in American history. It is worthy of a place in the equipment of the junior high school teacher.

Lamkin, Nina B., *America, Yesterday and Today*.

T. S. Denison and Company, Chicago, 1917.

This pageant is too elaborate for use except when something pretentious is desired in a community. It presents "the Spirit of Indian Days," "the Spirit of the Wilderness," and "the Spirit of Patriotism," requiring a cast of one hundred to two hundred. The time necessary for its production is an hour and fifteen minutes.

Lütkenhaus, Anna M., ed., *Plays for School Children*.

The Century Company, New York, 1923.

The plays in this book grew out of actual practice in the New York City elementary schools. Although some are not purely historical, the book contains worth-while and suggestive dramatizations. "Barnaby Lee," relating to the history of New York, "Town Meeting in Botetourt, Virginia," from Johnston's, *The Long Roll*, and "Thanksgiving Day—1696," are the plays best adapted to an American history class of junior high school age.

Mackay, Constance D'Arcy, *Plays of the Pioneers*.

Harper and Brothers, New York, 1915.

This volume would be useful to teachers in the junior high only when it was desired to demonstrate something beyond mere classroom practice. Pioneer history, in play-pageant form, is given in a colorful and picturesque manner, but would require many hours of practice before it would be ready for presentation.

Price, Olive M., *Short Plays from American History and Literature*.

Samuel French, New York, 1925.

In this volume Miss Price has incorporated plays found successful in the Pittsburgh schools. It includes "Lantern Light," a play of New England witchcraft in three acts; "Evangeline" in four acts; "The Song of Hiawatha" in seven scenes; "Little Lady of Dresden," a scene shortly after the close of the Revolution; "Around the Blue Wigwam," a play in two acts about Pocahontas; "White Asters," an Americanization playlet in three acts laid in 1905 and 1917; and "Memories" better fitted to the needs of the literature class than to history. An appendix gives suggestions on material relating to staging, costumes, and scenery. The plays are staged in such a way that it would not be necessary to have elaborate scenic effects.

Robson, Ethel Hadley, *Dramatic Episodes*.

The Atlantic Monthly Press, Boston, 1923.

The subtitle, "A Parliamentary Reader for Junior High School or Upper Elementary Grades," indicates the character of this book. It is designed to train in the practice of parliamentary law through the narration of historic episodes in deliberative bodies such as the Second Continental Congress. The first episode deals with the Stamp Act meetings and the last with the Arms Conference. In each case, directions as to action, time and place of meeting, and a list of characters are given. These dramatizations could be used with success in any school, as no stage-setting is required, although always desirable. With duplicate copies of the book it would be possible to reproduce the contents at the desirable time with the preparation needed only for a regular lesson.

Stevenson, Augusta, *Dramatized Scenes from American History*.

Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1916.

This is an excellent book for dramatization, suitable either for junior or senior high school work. According to the author, the plays are really "dramatic pageants, and the various acts are, with few exceptions, episodes, with different characters and representing different periods of time." The plays could be used in whole or in part for classroom work without the stage setting. On the other hand, with suitable stage setting and costuming, they would

provide a thoroughly acceptable performance of a somewhat pretentious character. There are seven plays, written in a simple, forceful style and setting forth episodes in the settlement of Jamestown, in the history of the Puritans and of the Pilgrims, and in the Revolutionary War.

Tucker, Louise E., and Ryan, Estelle L., *Historical Plays of Colonial Days for Fifth Year Pupils*.

Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1922.

Although designed for fifth year pupils, this little book could be used successfully in the junior high school. The plays are "stories" dealing with life in the colonies, somewhat fanciful in character, but based upon historical fact.

#### HELPFUL ARTICLES

"The Pilgrim Play," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. VIII (1907), pp. 17-22.

Boyd, Anne M., and Miller, Mabel V., "A Reading List on Historic and Fancy Costume," *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Vol. XII (February, 1921), pp. 59-61.

Brown, Horace G., "Dramatization in History Teaching," *Elementary School Teacher*, Vol. XIII (May, 1913), p. 425.

Dever, Mary, "Dramatization as an Aid in Teaching History," *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Vol. XIII (April, 1922), pp. 136-137.

Flesher, Ruth, "The Spirit of Progress," *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Vol. XI (December, 1920), pp. 349-350.

Hurd, R. C., "Builders of Democracy, An Original Historical Pageant," *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Vol. XVI, (May, 1925), pp. 225-227.

"Student Participation in History of Today," *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Vol. XIII (June, 1922), pp. 219-220.

"History by Pageantry," *Journal of Education*, Vol. LXXIV (November 2, 1911), pp. 461-462.

"The Pageant—An Aid in History Work," *Journal of Education*, Vol. LXXIV (August 24, 1911), pp. 180-181.

Lewis, Lila Irene, "A Peace Pageant," *Industrial Arts Magazine*, Vol. VI (June, 1917), p. 231.

Oberholtzer, E., "Historical Pageants in England and America," *Century*, Vol. LXXX (July, 1910), pp. 416-427.

Walker, Alberta, "Dramatization and Current Events," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. XVI (November, 1915), pp. 125-131.

#### MUSIC AS AN AID IN THE CLASSROOM

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Music, the most universal and human of all the arts, is an expression of the people and of the period in which it is written. Deep truth underlies the saying, "Let me but write the songs of a nation, and I care not who makes its laws." The history of a country may be told in the story and development of its music. The teacher who realizes this can, by making a practical correlation of history and music, vitalize and enrich her subject, and enliven and modify her classroom procedure.

The earliest efforts in American music were in the church, for, although many of the colonists sang their home songs and gave concerts, they were merely reproductions of similar events in the mother country. When the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth Rock they sang their psalms of thanksgiving, among which were the tunes of "Old Hundred," "Martyrs," "York," "Windsor," and "Hackney" or "St. Mary's." At first hymns were not permitted in either Puritan or Pilgrim worship, but in the 1647 edition of the "Bay Psalm Book" several appeared, as well as more than fifty new melodies to add to the original five psalm tunes then in use. It was not until 1713 that a pipe-organ, imported from England by Thomas Brattle,

was set up in King's Chapel, Boston, and four years later classes for regular instruction in music were formed for the purpose of improving church music. As a result, choirs gradually replaced the crude congregational psalm-singing.

Another outgrowth of these "singing schools" was the establishment of choral societies such as the one at Stoughton, Massachusetts, founded in 1786. Important among the singing-teachers and hymn-composers of this century were Billings, Lyon, Law, Holden, Read, and Edson. In 1759 Francis Hopkinson, our first composer of secular music, wrote the song, "My Days Have Been So Wondrous Free."

Closely connected with the history of a nation are its patriotic songs, generally spontaneous expressions of some crisis. The Revolutionary War was the first incentive to American patriotic music. Then, as at other times, writers of verse were more active than writers of music. Thus we find that many of the songs have melodies borrowed from other lands and, therefore, are not entirely a national product. The first patriotic song, called "A Liberty Song," was written by Mrs. Mercy Warren, wife of General Warren, and sung to the English tune, "Hearts of Oak." It was brought forth by the refusal of the Massachusetts legislature to rescind the "Circular Letter" of February 11, 1768. In 1770, a new version of the song was written entitled, "The Massachusetts Song of Liberty," showing a decidedly anti-British sentiment:

"Come swallow your bumpers, ye Tories, and roar,  
That the sons of fair freedom are hampered once more;  
But know that no cut-throats our spirits can tame,  
Nor a host of oppressors shall smother the flame."

Chorus:

"In freedom we're born, and like sons of the brave,  
Will never surrender,  
But swear to defend her,  
And scorn to survive, if unable to save."

Our first American war song, set to the hymn tune of "Chester," originated with William Billings. It was popular with the Revolutionary army and frequently played by the Continental fifers:

"Let tyrants shake their iron rod  
And slavery clank her galling chains,  
We'll fear them not; we trust in God,  
New England's God forever reigns."

"Yankee Doodle," widely sung to an English tune of disputed origin, has been treasured by the American people for many years. It was said of it a century or more ago:

"Yankee Doodle is the tune  
Americans delight in,  
'Twill do to whistle, sing or play,  
And just the thing for fighting."

In 1789 a march, known as "General Washington's March," and later as "The President's March," was composed and played at Washington's inauguration. This music has lived in the song "Hail Columbia," which was written in 1798 by Joseph Hopkinson to espouse Adams's and the Federalist party's cause. It eventually became national and is our first genuinely American song, both as to words and music. "Adams and Liberty" was another political song that appeared at this time. The words were by Robert

Treat Paine, Junior, and the melody was an old English song, "Anacreon in Heaven," to which "The Star-Spangled Banner" was adapted.

In 1814 the words of "The Star-Spangled Banner" were written by Francis Scott Key. Its history is well known. Despite many objections to it because of its vocal difficulty and the fact that it was originally an English drinking song, it more and more has come to be considered our national anthem. Another song of the War of 1812 is "The Constitution and the Guerrierre," more often known as "Hull's Victory." The words, sung to an old English melody, "The Landlady's Daughter of France," are as follows:

"It oft-times has been told  
That the British sailors bold  
Could flog the tars of France so neat and handy, O.  
And they never found their match,  
Till the Yankees did them catch,  
Oh, the Yankee boys for fighting are the dandy, O."

Other songs of this period inspired by naval contests were "The Enterprise and the Boxer," "The Hornet," and "The United States and the Macedonian."

"America" or "My Country, 'tis of Thee" was written by Samuel Francis Smith, and first sung at a children's celebration of American Independence in the Park Street Church, Boston, July 4, 1832. The words were set to the English air, "God Save the King," a tune alleged to have been used as a national anthem by as many as twelve different nations. "America" became popular during the Civil War and has vied with the "Star-Spangled Banner" for recognition as our national anthem. In 1843, "Columbia, the Gem of the Ocean" was printed, said to have been composed by Thomas Becket.

Following the Abolition agitation in the thirties, the songs of Stephen Collins Foster were especially significant. His first composition appeared in 1842, and within the next fifteen years he wrote one hundred and sixty songs. His "Old Folks at Home," with the exception of the "Marseillaise," is said to be the most widely sung song in the world, while "Old Black Joe," "Uncle Ned," and "My Old Kentucky Home," have been translated into many languages.

Another composer who has given America a melody of world-wide popularity is Daniel Decatur Emmett. "Dixie," composed by him as a negro "walk-around" for a minstrel performance in New York in 1859, became one of the most popular songs of the Confederate troops during the Civil War. An important Northern song during this struggle was "Glory Hallelujah." This song had been a favorite in Southern camp meetings for many years, but during the War it became known as "John Brown's tune," and today is called "The Battle Hymn of the Republic." Other Northern war songs of importance were "The Battle Cry of Freedom," by George F. Root, "Marching Through Georgia," by Henry Clay Work, and "Tenting on the Old Camp Ground," by Walter Kittredge. In the South, besides "Dixie," the soldiers sang "The Bonnie Blue Flag," "Lorena,"

"God Save the South," and "When This Cruel War Is Over." In spite of the fact that Maryland did not secede, "Maryland, My Maryland" held a prominent place.

After the Civil War musicians such as John Knowles Paine, George W. Chadwick, Arthur Foote, Ethelbert Nevin, Frederick S. Converse, Horatio Parker, and Edward MacDowell, among others, laid the foundation for the music of today. Each period in our history retains many of the contributions of the age preceding and adds materially to them, but often much of the new material is of a transitory nature. In the struggle with Spain, in 1898, "Yankee Doodle," "Dixie," "The Battle Hymn of the Republic," "Marching Through Georgia" and others of the old-time songs were used. Of the so-called popular airs, songs such as "A Hot Time in the Old Town," "Down on the Wabash," and the "coon songs" then in vogue were heard most often. During the World War the best songs of the Revolution and the Civil War retained their popularity, but most of the airs heard in the nineties had given way to those of a later day. Among the songs of recent origin which were sung were "Pack Up Your Troubles," "Keep the Home Fires Burning," "There's a Long, Long Trail," "I Hate to Get Up," "Good Morning, Mr. Zip," and "Over There." "K-K-K-Katy," written by Geoffrey O'Hara, ranks with the comic song of the Civil War, "The Captain with His Whiskers Stole a Sly Glance at Me."

The material here given is necessarily fragmentary, but school and community song-books and phonograph records will suggest more to the interested teacher who wishes to vary her usual classroom method. The following correlation may prove suggestive:

#### I. Period of Discovery and Exploration.

##### Indian music.

Records: Navajo Indian Songs.  
Indian Songs (Blackfeet).  
Indian Lament (Dvorak).  
Dagger Dance from "Natoma" (Herbert).  
Two Indian Songs sung by Princess Watahwaso.

#### II. Colonization and the Struggle for Supremacy in North America, 1607-1763.

##### Music of the colonists.

Hymns: Old Hundred.  
York.  
Dundee.  
Mear.

##### Records: Puritan Psalms.

Early Hymns of the Colonists.  
Pipe-organ music (First pipe organ built in America in 1745).

#### III. The Revolution and the Establishment of the American Nation, 1763-1789.

##### Song: Yankee Doodle.

Records: Violin—Minuet (Haydn) Kreisler.  
Harpsichord records by Wanda Landowska (the harpsichord was the precursor of the modern piano).  
Piano: The Harmonious Blacksmith (Handel) Bachaus.

#### IV. Nationalism and Democracy, 1789-1829.

##### Songs: Hail Columbia.

Star-Spangled Banner.

The Old Oaken Bucket.

Records: Fifth Symphony (Beethoven) (First orchestra in America, 1798).

Hallelujah Chorus (Handel) (Handel and Haydn singing society founded in Boston, 1815).

Records from "The Barber of Seville" (Rossini) (The first opera to be presented in America, 1825).

#### V. Expansion and Conflict, 1829-1865.

##### Songs: America.

Columbia, the Gem of the Ocean.

Old Black Joe.

Old Folks at Home.

O Susanna.

The Battle Hymn of the Republic.

Dixie.

Records: "Last Hope" and "The Dying Peasant," by Gottschalk (Gottschalk, 1829-1869, was an American composer and concert pianist).

Carry Me Back to Old Virginny.

Negro Spirituals:

I Know the Lord.

Swing Low Sweet Chariot.

Deep River.

Pioneer Music:

Old Dan Tucker.

Arkansas Traveler.

#### VI. The New Nation, 1865-1898.

Songs: When Johnny Comes Marching Home.

Speed Our Republic (Keller).

There's Music in the Air.

Records: New World Symphony (Dvorak).

From an Indian Lodge (MacDowell).

Narcissus (Nevin).

Stars and Stripes Forever (Sousa).

#### VII. The Period of World Interests.

Songs: Star-Spangled Banner.

Marseillaise.

Santa Lucia.

Scots Wha Hae.

Chorus of: Tipperary.

Keep the Home Fires Burning.

Over There.

Records: Foreign Composers.

Golliwog's Cake Walk (Debussy).

Intermezzo (Wolf-Ferrari).

In the Hall of the Mountain King (Grieg).

Ballet from "The Snow Maiden" (Rimsky-Korsakoff).

Spanish Dance (Granados).

Pomp and Circumstance (Elgar).

Andantino (Reger).

Medley American Patriotic Airs.

Records by American composers, artists and orchestras.

#### VISUAL AIDS IN UNITED STATES HISTORY

The value of visual experience has long been recognized as an aid in the learning process, for the eye is one of the most retentive and observant of all human sense organs. As early as the seventeenth century Comenius, in his *Orbis Sensualium Pictus* (The World Illustrated), employed pictures as an aid in conveying ideas. Both Pestalozzi and Froebel believed in their efficacy.

Within the last few years the interest in visual aids in education has grown to such an extent that scientific experimentation has endeavored to measure the degree of their effectiveness and to determine the best method of presentation. Universities and teachers' colleges are now offering courses in this phase of education,



and commercial companies have embarked upon projects undertaken to meet the demands.

Obviously, in the teaching of history, visual experience as such is not often possible, but man-made visual aids can be called into use as an effective interpreter of the printed page. Recent experiments under Freeman and others, as to whether visual instruction is superior to oral, have failed to prove a superiority on the whole, when the visual was employed alone; but in certain cases it was shown that the effectiveness of the text was increased when accompanied by visual aids.<sup>6</sup> Weber, in experimenting in seventh grade geography, found, for example, that motion pictures correlated with a lesson increased its effectiveness, as a result of greater ease of comprehension and a higher degree of "satisfyingness"; that since pictures provide vicarious experience, they should introduce a lesson when the subject-matter is relatively foreign to the learners.<sup>7</sup> His experiment demonstrated in developing a composite visual image, that pictorial presentation is more effective than verbal, for an increase in learning is characterized by more memories, clearer ideas, better organization, and less misinterpretation. In England, similar experimentation demonstrated for every one hundred facts remembered by the ordinary method, two hundred sixteen were remembered by the aid of a cinematograph film.<sup>8</sup>

The most recent of visual aids is the cinema. As yet the demand for it has not been sufficient to warrant the outlay necessary to produce many instructive and historically accurate films, but a beginning has been made. And it is hoped that this beginning is prophetic of the future. In this form of visual instruction the child's learning process is promoted not only by all the elements of the "still" picture, but also by the reality of motion.

The dramatic element of historic episodes has lent itself to the production of many historical films by commercial companies. Unfortunately, these episodes are not always "filmed" in such a way as to tell the truth, because the desire for the emotional and fanciful has often led away from a truthful portrayal. As a result, pseudo-historical concepts are built up—much worse than no concepts at all. Of the historical films issued by commercial companies, topics of the day are most popular. News weeklies such as the *Fox News*, *Screen Snapshots*, *International News*, *Selznick News*, *Kinograms*, and *Pathé News* are the best known. A school edition of the *Pathé News* is issued weekly.

The need for historically accurate "movies," however, is being met for American history by *The Chronicles of American Photoplays*, a series of motion pictures depicting events in the annals of the United States from the voyage of Columbus to Appomattox. This series is planned by the Yale University Press under the direction of members of the departments of history and education of Yale University, and produced under the supervision and control of a committee of the University Council. They are distributed through Pathé Exchange, Incorporated.

Based upon the *Chronicles of America Series*, these pictures are planned and supervised by specialists in their particular fields, aiming at an accurate portrayal of historical events, set forth in an interesting and appealing form. Thirty-three photoplays are planned of which not quite one-half are now completed. Teachers are furnished with a set of photographs and a pamphlet pointing out details and commenting upon the teaching opportunity of the particular film considered. A stop device on the projector enables the teacher to halt the reel and explain the details in each picture. These details have been carefully worked out to the minutest point, and there is little chance that misinformation will be carried to the child.<sup>9</sup>

The Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Washington, D. C., has produced, in connection with the Bureau of Mines, many industrial films. Most of them are paid for by private capital for the purpose of advertising, but they contain much information pertinent to the development of industries. The Ford Educational Library sells to schools films made in the Ford Motion Pictures Laboratories, Detroit.

Among the manufacturing concerns which distribute films free are the International Harvester Company, Chicago; United States Steel Corporation, New York; National Cash Register Company, Dayton, Ohio; Western Electric Company, New York; General Electric Company, Schenectady, New York. By writing the Industrial Department of the International Committee of the Y. M. C. A., Madison Avenue, New York, further information regarding these industrial films can be obtained. Films of an educational character are also distributed free by the Bureau of Commercial Economics, Washington, D. C.

Not only can films be obtained from commercial concerns, but the government and various state educational institutions have embarked on the enterprise of visual education. The department of agriculture was the first branch of the government to make educational films. Except for transportation charges films are furnished free, and applications should be addressed to the Office of Motion Pictures, Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. Although these films are primarily for the study of agriculture, yet such a picture as *Trees of Tomorrow* cannot help but clarify the discussion on conservation which is taken up in many history classes. Many state institutions have visual instruction departments in connection with their extension work. Information regarding them may be secured from "Visual Education Departments in Educational Institutions," *Bureau of Education*, Bulletin, 1924, No. 8, Washington, D. C.

The most enthusiastic advocates of the educational film have asserted that moving pictures will soon supersede oral instruction, but teachers, on the whole, do not accept such a sweeping prophecy. More conservative supporters believe that they will soon be used in the same manner as, and will meet with as great frequency of use as the wall map, the blackboard, pictures and illustrations in books. Without

discounting the advantages of this form of visual education, it is doubtful whether either group is right, because of the cost involved in their production and use. The cinema is useful, as are all such devices, in clarifying points, arousing interest, and enabling the eye-minded to keep abreast of the ear-minded. Certainly they cannot entirely take the place of methods of instruction already found successful. Their purpose is to make concrete the subject-matter presented according to other accepted and satisfactory methods.

Two aids similar to the cinema, but lacking the reality of motion, are stereographs and lantern slides. The Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pennsylvania, and Underwood and Underwood, New York, are two distributors of such aids. The expenditure of school funds required to purchase them is relatively small and, therefore, they should be frequently used.

One of the oldest devices to make the past real has been the use of objects and models. In every community are many relics which can be assembled in a museum of the school or borrowed for the use of the history class. The preservation of cartoons, old letters, deeds to property, old pictures in old frames, coins and paper currency of by-gone days establish direct contact with the lesson studied. Various business concerns have available such visual aids. Among these are G. E. Stechert and Company, New York, and Denoyer-Geppert Company, Chicago.

Illustrations in textbooks are the most accessible, but the least used of all these devices. Few teachers refer to them to clarify the written page. Yet pictures are included not only to provoke interest, but to make the text understandable. Most teachers proceed on the entirely wrong assumption that pupils familiarize themselves with the story told by pictures in the text, for without direction few students study pictures intelligently. In order to determine the extent to which illustrations were used, one teacher asked sixty-five pupils of American history, "Do you make use of the pictures in your textbooks while studying your lesson as a help in understanding it?" Thirty of the sixty-five did not use pictures at all; twenty-one used them sometimes, fourteen said they used them, but qualified their statements by saying they did not consider the pictures interesting.<sup>10</sup>

Besides using the illustrations in textbooks the teacher should endeavor to collect pictures which can be pasted on cardboard or upon stiff paper. These can make a history in themselves. Why not a pictorial history of the changes brought about by inventions in lighting, of the development of agriculture, of transportation? No more fruitful test of a child's information can be given than by asking him to identify and characterize the period of each of the illustrations upon a card. On the other hand, a child's imagination and acquisitive instinct is whetted by encouraging him to make a pictorial history of some phase of the field studied. This could be used as an oral or written report instead of the term paper, or in connection with it.

#### A HISTORY OF AGRICULTURE

A colonial plow, Gordy, p. 103; colonial farm tools, Mace-Bogardus, p. 86; threshing grain with a flail, McLaughlin

and Van Tyne, p. 298; a tobacco roller, Thwaites and Kendall, p. 119; the first cotton gin, Beard and Bagley, p. 197; a hand mill for grinding corn, Burnham, p. 192; a grain cradle, Burnham, p. 261; cutting grain with a sickle, Mace-Bogardus, p. 249; an early McCormick reaper, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 337; Burnham, p. 290; Mace-Bogardus, p. 250; Woodburn and Moran, p. 381; a tractor, Gordy, pp. 382, 383; Burnham, p. 291; Woodburn and Moran, p. 474; a steam traction engine, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 429; harrowing with a steam traction engine, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 430; a Dakota farm, Beard and Bagley, p. 461; a modern harvesting machine, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 430; a cotton field, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 279, 285; a modern tobacco field, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 48.

#### DRESS

Puritan dress, Beard and Bagley, p. 60; McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 59; Gordy, p. 66; Mace-Bogardus, p. 38; Penn's hat, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 85; colonial dress, Gordy, p. 47; Halleck, p. 74; a cavalier, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 102; Mace-Bogardus, p. 69; a Huguenot gentleman, Mace-Bogardus, p. 67; Woodburn and Moran, p. 112; Washington's uniform, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 170; women's dress about 1780, Hart, p. 169; a traveler's equipment in early nineteenth century, Halleck, p. 310.

#### EARLY METHODS OF MAKING CLOTHING

A handloom of colonial days, Beard and Bagley, p. 298; Hargreaves' spinning jenny, Burnham, p. 274; Robbins, p. 240; Howe's model of the sewing machine, Gordy, p. 264; Hart, p. 275; Mace-Bogardus, p. 252; Robbins, p. 295; an early sewing machine, Burnham, p. 387; modern sewing machine, Beard and Bagley, p. 317; Arkwright's first spinning frame, Burnham, p. 274; Crompton's spinning mule, Burnham, p. 274; Hart, p. 271; spinning wheel, Halleck, p. 146; Robbins, p. 241.

#### HOUSES AND CHURCHES BEFORE THE CIVIL WAR

Oldest house in St. Augustine, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 29; a Pilgrim meeting house and fort, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 56; a colonial meeting house, Beard and Bagley, p. 70; a South Carolina church, Mace-Bogardus, p. 82; a patroon's house, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 78; Mace-Bogardus, p. 53; Dutch houses in old New York City, Beard and Bagley, p. 111; a Southern planter's home, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 94; Gordy, p. 111; a house in the middle colonies, Robbins, p. 63; Friends' meeting house, Beard and Bagley, p. 122; a frontier log cabin, Beard and Bagley, p. 106; McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 293; house in Ohio about 1840, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 334; slave quarters on a Southern plantation, Gordy, p. 298; Hart, p. 253.

#### HOUSEHOLD FURNISHINGS AND FURNITURE IN THE COLONIES

Colonial kitchen, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 124; Gordy, p. 108; Mace-Bogardus, p. 74; Thwaites and Kendall, p. 113; a foot-stool, Gordy, p. 104; the tinder box, with flint and steel, Gordy, p. 109; a colonial fireplace, Woodburn and Moran, p. 111; a colonial chair, Halleck, pp. 62, 112; Mace-Bogardus, p. 42; a colonial cradle, Halleck, p. 75; Mace-Bogardus, p. 42; old-fashioned lamps and candlesticks, Halleck, p. 281; a whale oil lamp, Mace-Bogardus, p. 75; old-fashioned bed, Halleck, p. 292; a colonial room, Robbins, p. 74; Woodburn and Moran, p. 117.

#### TRAVEL ON LAND

Colonial travel, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 127; Gordy, p. 117; pioneer's wagon (eighteenth century), McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 180; "The Flying Machine," Thwaites and Kendall, p. 118; stage coach, Gordy, p. 189; Burnham, p. 264; Halleck, p. 153; early horse car, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 293; a pioneer wagon (Conestoga), Gordy, p. 239; Burnham, p. 266; one-horse chaise, Halleck, p. 165; Thwaites and Kendall, p. 120; transporting freight before the time of the railroad, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 395; a horse power locomotive, Burnham, p. 286; an early steam engine, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 295; Beard and Bagley, p. 309; railway travel in 1831, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 296; a train in 1835, Mace-Bogardus, p. 213; prospecting, 1855, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 331; an old velocipede and high-wheel bicycle, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 404; evolution of the bicycle,



Hart, p. 419; the pony express, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 424; Hart, p. 322; Robbins, p. 284; a modern steam locomotive, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 426; Gordy, p. 259; Burnham, p. 287; a modern electric locomotive, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 428; a modern auto truck, Beard and Bagley, p. 483; evolution of the automobile, Halleck, p. 522; Hart, p. 460.

#### TRAVEL ON WATER

The *Santa Maria*, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 10; Robbins, p. 6; merchant ships (sixteenth century), Beard and Bagley, p. 10; Spanish treasure ships, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 27; the *Half Moon*, Beard and Bagley, p. 68; McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 75; Gordy, p. 71; Halleck, p. 108; the *Mayflower*, Gordy, p. 57; Thwaites and Kendall, p. 79; Fulton's steamboat, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 253; Gordy, p. 216; the *Constitution*, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 265; Gordy, p. 224; a barge, Gordy, p. 217; a flatboat, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 275; Beard and Bagley, p. 475; Gordy, p. 208; an ocean steamer (1860), Beard and Bagley, p. 313; the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 365; Beard and Bagley, p. 415; a Spanish ship, 1898, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 420; the modern ocean steamship, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 437; Beard and Bagley, p. 485; a lake ore carrier, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 438; a modern transport, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 478.

#### RECREATIONS AND AMUSEMENTS BEFORE THE CIVIL WAR

A quilting bee, Beard and Bagley, p. 246; boys playing marbles, Hart, p. 172; fox-hunting in Virginia, Mace-Bogardus, p. 76; little girls at play, Hart, p. 172.

#### SCHOOLS

A schoolhouse in early days, Gordy, p. 105; Burnham, p. 80; Halleck, p. 89; Harvard College (early days), Gordy, p. 107; Mace-Bogardus, p. 78; a colonial school, Halleck, p. 156; Mace-Bogardus, p. 77; nineteenth century, Beard and Bagley, p. 345; Boston English classical school (1821), Beard and Bagley, p. 351; an old country school (middle of nineteenth century), Hart, p. 305; a university, 1855, Beard and Bagley, p. 565; a modern high school, Mace-Bogardus, p. 426; a modern rural school, Mace-Bogardus, p. 427.

#### FORMS OF PUNISHMENT BEFORE THE CIVIL WAR

Pillory and stocks, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 64; Beard and Bagley, p. 117; Halleck, p. 93; the ducking stool, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 64; Gordy, p. 106; first modern prison in the United States, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 316.

#### PRINTING

An early printing shop, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 5; a printing press of the eighteenth century, Beard and Bagley, p. 356; Woodburn and Moran, p. 88; press-room of a newspaper today, Gordy, p. 542; a linotype machine, Gordy, p. 543; a modern printing press, Mace-Bogardus, p. 433; Woodburn and Moran, p. 88; monotype machine for type setting, Robbins, p. 534.

#### WEAPONS OF WARFARE

Indian weapons, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 24; Halleck, p. 48; Woodburn and Moran, p. 31; sixteenth century weapons, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 33; powder horns, Halleck, p. 77; colonial soldier, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, p. 177; Gordy, p. 94; Hart, p. 133; Revolutionary soldier, Mace-Bogardus, p. 121; frontiersman's gun, Beard and Bagley, p. 238; in the Civil War, Gordy, p. 323; Robbins, p. 345; trenches in the Civil War, Hart, p. 339; sword of the Civil War, Hart, p. 342; balloon in the Civil War, Thwaites and Kendall, p. 383; poison gas in the World War, Woodburn and Moran, p. 446; a gun in the World War, Gordy, p. 523; Burnham, p. 584; Mace-Bogardus, p. 476; a tank in the World War, Beard and Bagley, p. 630; Gordy, p. 522; Burnham, p. 576; Halleck, p. 506; Woodburn and Moran, p. 447.

In addition to the illustrations in her textbook, the teacher can add to her store by cutting pictures from magazines and the rotogravure section of the Sunday papers. For the nominal sum of one cent many historical prints can be secured from the Perry Pictures

Company, Malden, Massachusetts. This company has pictures of different sizes, at moderate cost, which will give the history teacher invaluable aid in the presentation of her subject. Similar helps can be obtained from the Thompson Publishing Company, Syracuse, New York, The Cosmos Pictures, New York, Longmans, Green and Company, New York, The Elson Art Publishing Company, Boston, The University Prints, Newton, Massachusetts, and the Copley Prints, Boston. The National Geographic Society, Washington, D. C., also has pictures of worth for the history teacher.

To the readers of this magazine it is quite unnecessary to call attention to the McKinley Illustrated Topics (1623 Ranstead Street, Philadelphia). These topics, besides proving an aid in training in historical investigation, are unusually helpful because of the illustrations which accompany them.

Wherever it is possible, the pupil should be directed to reproduce with his pencil what he has seen.

Such simple visual devices thus may serve in making the abstract concrete, and in arousing an interest and enjoyment in the subject-matter. They should not be used to the exclusion of other methods which have proved efficient; but they tend to make vicarious experiences real.<sup>11</sup>

<sup>1</sup> See Charters, W. W., *The Curriculum* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1923), ch. 19.

<sup>2</sup> See *Report of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association*, "The Social Studies in Secondary Education," Bulletin, 1916, No. 28, Bureau of Education, Washington.

<sup>3</sup> For example, Detroit gives eight weeks to United States history since 1914 and devotes the remainder of the time to community civics; Minneapolis and the University High Schools at the Universities of Iowa and Michigan teach United States history; the University High School at Oakland, California, treats United States history since the Civil War, geography and community civics; Pittsburgh gives civics in some schools and follows the idea of the Rugg pamphlets in others; Spokane, Seattle, St. Paul, Tulsa, Oklahoma, present history and civics; the Francis Parker School teaches English history; and Washington, D. C., besides geography, devotes time to United States history since 1812, with civics taught in connection with the history.

<sup>4</sup> This is given to show a type of work presented in the new courses of study.

<sup>5</sup> This study formed a part of the Commonwealth Investigation of Examinations in the Social Studies conducted by Dr. G. M. Ruch at the University of Iowa. The reader's attention is called to the appalling lack of fact information on the part of pupils. We can well wonder what is wrong with our teaching. B. L. P.

<sup>6</sup> Freeman, Frank W., ed., *Visual Education* (Chicago, 1924).

<sup>7</sup> Weber, Joseph J., *Comparative Effectiveness of Some Visual Aids in Seventh Grade Instruction* (Chicago, 1922).

<sup>8</sup> *The Manchester [England] Guardian* quoted in *The Des Moines Register*, November 16, 1924.

<sup>9</sup> See Fox, Dixon, Ryan, "The Chronicles of America in Motion Pictures," *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Vol. XV (January, 1924), pp. 12-17.

<sup>10</sup> Ames, Edgar W., "Pictures, Their Use and Abuse in History Teaching," *History Teacher's Magazine*, Vol. III (September, 1911), pp. 8-10.

<sup>11</sup> Substantially the same discussion of visual aids appeared in the University of Iowa Extension Bulletin No. 130, *Aids for History Teachers*, August 15, 1925. The illustrations used, however, were for the senior high school.



# Experiments in the Use of Current Events<sup>1</sup>

BY CHARLES G. VANNEST, PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, EVANSVILLE COLLEGE, EVANSVILLE, IND.

Professor Andrews, of Tufts College, in his article, "Some Suggestions as to the Use and Abuse of Current Events in History Classes," in *The History Teacher's Magazine*, Vol. IX, says: "Two main methods of using current events in history classes might be distinguished. Either the subject matter of the course, ancient, medieval, and modern European, English or American history, is supplemented by the systematic use of current events, or else an attempt is made to build up a course around current events as a nucleus. The former plan is but the intensifying of a custom frequently and rather generally followed by able and broad history teachers, to a greater or less degree, of referring to the happenings of the day when they had any real connection with any part of the subject matter of the course in question. Such references were not dragged in, but came naturally, as they were appropriate to the field of history under discussion."

This paper will present a brief summary of the different methods that attempt to achieve the two aims set forth by Professor Andrews. The material for the paper was secured by an examination of the reports of the teachers of current events in the various secondary schools of our country and was taken mainly from those reports that appeared from time to time in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

1. The committee method—In this method an outline of the principal current events is made. The outline is made by the students working under the direction of the teacher and the materials for it are secured from magazines and newspapers. A number of committees are appointed from the class and to each is assigned one main topic from the outline. All members of the committees gather material upon their topic and in a committee meeting a report is formulated. The committees' reports are presented to the class by some members, generally the chairman. Following the reports, comes a general class discussion. In some schools a weekly report is made, in others a report every two weeks, while in others the reports are made when the material in them supplements the material on the same subject in the textbook. The personnel of the committees is changed frequently so as to bring into direct participation as many students as possible.

2. The magazine staff method—A method somewhat similar to the committee method is that in which the class is organized into a magazine staff. The students, with the advice of the teacher, select a managing editor who appoints editors of the different departments as National Affairs, Internal Affairs, Science, Inventions, Literature, Education, Sports, etc. The editors of the different departments select the other members of the class as reporters for their departments. At frequent intervals during the year

new editors and new reporters are selected. The board of editors examines the daily and weekly papers and the weekly and monthly magazines and periodicals for worth while articles and especially for current topics that interpret and explain the subject matter of the textbook. They give these articles to the reporters of the different departments who take notes on them and give class reports from their notes. The club or society meets informally during a regular recitation period once a week or once every two weeks. The managing editor is in charge of the meeting and the teacher, as in other socialized recitations, remains in the background. After the reports are given in class, a general class discussion follows.

3. The legislative method—The class in civics or history is organized into a legislative body, with all the necessary officials. The current topic under discussion is introduced in the form of a bill. The bill is read, referred to the proper committee, put on the calendar, discussed, voted upon and either enacted into law or defeated. Ofttimes the bill is killed in committee. Sometimes the class is organized into a Senate, House, and President. In such cases a bill goes through all the stages of a bill in our national Congress.

4. The historical method—The entire class follows for a definite period, as a week or two weeks, some important topic, or topics, selected by the teacher, of local, national, or international importance. The assignments are made by the teacher very much as are the regular textbook assignments. The topics assigned are handled in class in different ways—general class discussion, questions by the teacher, class reports, written quizzes, etc.

5. The textbook method—A periodical or magazine is used as a textbook. Lessons are assigned in it as in a regular textbook and the students are held for the material in various forms of recitations. Some teachers use exclusively the questions sent out by the magazine. This method usually implies some current events work each week.

6. The report or topic method—One or more students are assigned current topics to be reported upon in class at some specified time. These topics are usually allied to and help explain the textbook lessons. At the proper time in the recitation period, the reports are given before the class. Then class discussion follows. Sometimes the reports do not pertain to the lesson in the textbook, but are merely a part of the historical method, described above. In such cases they are given at the close of the regular daily recitation, a certain portion of the period being set aside for them. Most teachers who use this method require all the members of the class to keep notes in their current events notebooks upon the reports as they are given in class.

7. The problem method—The teacher assigns to the class special problems upon which all are to work. Outlines of the material on the problem are made by each student. One or more students are called upon to place their outlines on the blackboard. Class discussions of the outlines follow and the material placed on the board is explained and supplemented by the class.

8. The socialized recitation—In this method the class is organized into a club, meeting during the class hour. Officers are elected including a President, Secretary, and the necessary committees. The President is in charge of the meeting and calls for discussion of the assigned topics. The various committees report upon their topics, after which a general class discussion follows. In this form of recitation, the teacher remains in the background.

9. The debate method—Many current topics are suitable for debates. The debate may be a general one in which all the students of the class take part or it may be a formal one with two or three students on a side. Some teachers find that the debates are participated in only by the more talented and aggressive few and for this reason disfavor this method if it is to be used in a formal way.

10. Current events class roll—Each student chooses a current event subject which he follows for a definite time, as a week or two weeks. This current event class roll is the basis of discussion on current events day. The various forms of the recitation are used in handling current events in this way.

11. Division of subject matter—In this method one-third of the class read the daily papers for a definite period, as a week, with special reference to state news, another one-third to general United States news, and the other third to world news. Each week the news fields are changed so that each student may have a chance to read in all three fields. On current events day the students are called upon to report the news in the different fields.

12. General assembly plan—Some schools have the current events hour during general assembly each week. Participation by all the pupils of the school is required. The methods used vary in different schools—some have class reports, others use the question-and-answer method, still others have written quizzes.

13. The notebook method—Each member of the class has a current events notebook in which is kept a weekly digest of a certain number of events. If possible the events parallel the material studied in the textbook and the collateral reading books. The topics selected are of local, national, and international significance. Each event is named and classified, the reference is given, and a summary of the event is set forth. Sometimes events are clipped and pasted in the notebooks instead of summarized. Editorials, too, are often included in the notebook. Some teachers have the students criticize the editorials.

14. The scrapbook method—In this method the notebook is a scrapbook. Each student keeps an individual scrapbook in which are pasted newspaper and magazine clippings pertaining to the subjects

discussed during the year. A variation of this plan is to have one large scrapbook made by all members of the class. The material to go into the scrapbook is brought to class by the students and its importance is decided upon by class discussions. At the close of the term the book becomes the property of the school and is placed in the library for reference.

15. The cartoon method—Cartoons are studied both in connection with the subject matter of the newspaper or by themselves. They are collected by members of the class. Many teachers encourage the students to find cartoons that especially illustrate the textbook subject matter. Some teachers cut off the legends to see if the class can understand the cartoons. They also have the students suggest new legends. Other teachers vary this method and have the class select topics they would like to see cartooned. If the class has any one adept at drawing, he is asked to furnish cartoons on certain subjects. Other teachers have exercised in distinguishing cartoon and caricature.

16. The bulletin board—The most important current event of each day or each week is decided upon in class by class discussion and is then clipped from the newspaper or magazine and posted on the bulletin board.

17. The card file method—Each student keeps a cumulative record of the principal current events, condensing each event on a 3 x 5 index card. The cards are classified and filed by subject.

18. The clipping file method—The class as a whole keeps a clipping file arranged by subjects. For this purpose large manila envelopes are used. On the front of the envelope is written the subject, and all clippings on that subject are placed in the envelope. The envelopes are kept in order, arranged alphabetically by subjects. Instead of using the large envelope some teachers have their classes paste the clippings on large manila sheets. The cumulative record becomes the property of the school and is often invaluable in many ways.

19. Keeping a list of current words—Each member of the class keeps, in his current events notebook, a list of current words, terms, and phrases that the teacher and class agree that all must understand in order to become intelligent citizens.

20. The prophetic index method—Teachers who use a weekly or monthly magazine as a textbook in current events occasionally have their students make a list of events that they believe will appear in the next issue of their periodical, together with the reasons for their selection. After the arrival of the magazine, the students compare their lists of events with the contents of the magazine. Class discussion then follows why the editors made the choice they did.

21. Question box method—Where a magazine is used in teaching current events, each student in the class is required to make out at certain times a list of questions to be answered by other members of the class.

22. The informal method—The students of the class are urged to read the current literature that appeals to them. On certain days they are called



upon to report upon their readings—sometimes by roll call, by questions, by class reports, or by written quizzes.

23. Pageants and dramas—Some teachers find pageants and dramas of important events very effective in teaching current history. During presidential election years, national nominating conventions are held, campaign speeches are made by the students representing the different political parties, campaign rallies are held, and on election day a real election is held at the school house. In such activities the students live life.

24. Written work—On current events day the class is held to a brief written test over the work assigned. At the end of the month or term or semester a more extensive written quiz is given over the work.

25. Use in daily class work—Some teachers find that the very best work in current events is secured by not setting aside a certain period as current events day once a week or once a month, but by encouraging the pupils to read the newspapers and magazines consistently and "tie up" the material read with the material in their textbooks and collateral reading books. They say that a current events day, as such, defeats the very purpose of current history for it isolates the events and sets them apart when they should be used to supplement and explain the subject matter of textbooks.

<sup>1</sup>A paper read before the Conference on the Social Studies at Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, May 2, 1923.

## Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

### History of Our Own Times

*These Eventful Years*, the Twentieth Century in the Making. Two vols., 692 and 695 pp. Encyclopaedia Britannica Co., London and New York, 1924. \$11.50. Edited by Franklin H. Hooper.

*History of Modern Europe*, 1878-1919. By G. P. Gooch. Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1923. 728 pp. \$5.00.

*Europe Since 1815*. By Charles Downer Hazen. Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1923. Two vols., 1202 pp. \$8.00.

*Europe Since 1918*. By Herbert Adams Gibbons. The Century Co., New York, 1923. 622 pp. \$3.00.

*These Eventful Years* is a very impressive undertaking, quite distinct from the famous encyclopedia bearing the imprint of the same publishers, a co-operative history in 84 chapters, filling 1400 pages, with 160 full-page illustrations or groups of pictures, and many maps and charts, all devoted to the story of the past quarter century and the current conditions and outlook. Despite the inevitable unevenness and defects of such an enterprise, this is a really notable work. The articles, all of which are signed, have been prepared for the most part by scholars and publicists of high standing or by men and women who have played an important part as "makers" of the twentieth century. The editor has wisely chosen to represent many nations and varied views in the selection of contributors, even adopting the excellent plan of having the same subject treated twice in successive chapters. The story of the Battle of Jutland is told by Admiral Jellicoe and then by Admiral von Scheer; the military history is written by Sir Frederick Maurice, General Ludendorff, General Mangin, and Frank H. Simonds. It is a pity that more topics (for example, Russia) were not dealt with in this way.

Volume I opens with a general "History of Our Own Times," chiefly of international relations, with special reference to the World War, by Mr. J. L. Garvin, editor of the *London Observer*, a moderate and well-written account of 200 pages. Then follows a chapter by Professor C. J. H. Hayes, of Columbia University, that is notable for its breadth of view and judicial temper in setting forth "The Causes of the World War." He first deals with the "International anarchy and vogue of nationalism," the various international disputes and controversies, the characteristics and influence of imperialism, militarism, and secret diplomacy, and the system of alliances; then proceeds to a summary of the immediate causes taking account, without any tone of partisanship, of the numerous documents made

public since the War. He shows that the personal and national responsibility was divided and holds that the immediate actors would not have been able to precipitate such a frightful struggle had they not been "the more or less willing agents of immense forces which for a generation had been predisposing the world to mortal combat." Many chapters are devoted to the individual nations, sometimes contributed by an eminent representative, in other cases by a recognized authority of some other nationality.

In addition to the general and national accounts, there are chapters on a wide variety of subjects—debts, taxation, wages, and other economic questions; social and revolutionary unrest by Philip Snowden; twentieth century literature by Henry Seidel Canby, the new poetry by John Gould Fletcher, "decay of the drama" by St. John Irvine; music by H. T. Finck and "esthetic truth and futurist nonsense" by Clive Bell; industry and invention, radium by Madame Curie, "what science can do for man," by J. Arthur Thomson; "man's early history in the light of recent revolutionary discoveries," by Professor J. H. Breasted, and a chapter on the antiquity of man in middle America by Professor M. H. Saville; medicine and surgery, psychoanalysis by Sigmund Freud, psychical research by Sir Oliver Lodge; democratic tendencies in education by the President of Yale, modern religious tendencies by Dean Shailer Mathews; reflections on big business by Charles M. Schwab, the political awakening of women by Viscountess Rhondra, and "the intricate web of world commerce"; international sport, exploration and discovery; and "the greatest social experiment of modern times" in which Professor T. N. Carver argues vigorously in favor of prohibition. There is an admirable but far-too-brief chapter by Bertrand Russell on "Government by Propaganda." There is a forecast of the future which is, of course, contributed by Mr. H. G. Wells.

The wide scope of *These Eventful Years* is typical of the constant broadening and socializing of the writing and study of history. Characteristic also of recent tendencies is the treatment at such length of the history of our own times. But in arrangement and organization the work is not representative of the "New History." There are no integrating chapters attempting the kind of synthesis of political with economic and social history that is essential to the fullest understanding and clearest grasp of inter-relations, nor is the fundamental character of scientific and technical progress brought out to explain the general characteristics of the age. Regrettable as this is, we need not be less thankful for what these really fascinating volumes do give us. There is an immense range of interesting and



important fact and opinion, well prepared for consecutive reading, and also available for reference through an index of 33 double-column pages. The volumes should be in every high school and college library.

Mr. Gooch's volume is not a history of Europe, for as the author himself states his theme "is the relations of the Great Powers of Europe to one another." It deals with diplomacy and wars, and is strictly limited to Europe, giving no account, for example, of the Boer War or the Russo-Japanese conflict, though necessarily alluding to some of their consequences. It is a pity that such a story does not begin with 1870, but the author adopts the later date because he chooses to present his book as "a continuation of Fyffe's admirable *History of Modern Europe, 1792-1878*. Aside from these minor points, there is little to be said against it. As a history of the international relations of the Great Powers in Europe and of the diplomatic background of the World War, it is an admirable piece of work, decidedly the best of its kind now available. It is written with scholarly care and on the whole with great moderation and impartiality. It must be added that the author's detachment is not quite complete when he gently reproaches the Continent for failing to give credit to Great Britain for "her disinterested humanitarianism" (?) in foreign policy raising the point in connection with the Near East (p. 256), or when he forgets that the lack of published documents from the British foreign archives often leads him to rely on favorable sources when describing certain negotiations, or when he follows the bad habit very common among British writers of talking about "we" and "us" instead of the more objective "Great Britain." Nevertheless, the book is on the whole a narrative of unusual fairness.

Of special interest, of course, is Mr. Gooch's account of the immediate causes of the World War. It is very temperately written, with remarkably little tendency toward either war-time or revisionist extremes of interpretation. The hundreds of documents, memoirs, and analyses that have become available since the war have evidently been given conscientious consideration, and the result is something radically different from the conventional view, something much closer to the findings of such scholars as Professor S. B. Fay. The heavy responsibility of Russian statesmen is brought out, though not much is made of the responsibility of the French group led by Poincaré, on which revisionist opinion has recently been insisting in the light of progressive disclosures. Mr. Gooch concludes his chapter on "The Breaking of the Storm" with a summary showing ability to understand the point of view and problems of each of the belligerents, but adds that the conduct of the statesmen is not thus to be justified "on the grounds either of morality or expediency." He finds that the root of the evil lay in the division of Europe into two armed camps, the prevalence of fear everywhere, the existence of a powder magazine into which a match dropped by accident or design was certain to produce a conflagration. While the statesmen "may be acquitted of the supreme offense of deliberately starting the avalanche, they must bear the reproach of having chosen paths which led straight to the abyss." "Clumsy performers who strutted for a brief hour across the stage" must take their share of blame, but the underlying trouble was the "international anarchy which they inherited and which they did nothing to abate."

Professor Hazen's *Europe Since 1815* originally appeared in 1910 in one volume and has ever since been highly regarded as a scholarly and exceptionally well-written manual of political history. The new edition is nearly double the length of the old. There are new chapters on the Industrial Revolution and the growth of socialism, with an extended account of the reign of William II in Germany, but otherwise the contents of the old volume seem to be reprinted almost verbatim. The additional material is devoted to recent history, and especially to the World War and its aftermath. An astounding feature of the added volume is an account of the origins of the War told precisely as if nothing had been revealed since the struggle was at its height, the narrative in fact being a reprint of the author's

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own account written in 1916, without so much as a mention (except in his bibliography) of the numerous documents that have been published. All the old epithets and denunciations, the eulogies and fervid rhetoric, are there. America could not have stayed out of it "unless we were the most craven and pigeon-hearted people on the earth." No one acquainted with the genial author will question his good faith, but the intensity of his sympathies and his extended sojourns in France have evidently smothered his judgment, with the result that a student or reader depending upon his book would actually be left unaware of the existence of the mass of documents that have been made public and of their effect upon a great body of opinion in America and in Allied countries. It is in this respect that Mr. Hazen's work is indefensible. Opinion is still very much divided about the precise distribution of personal and national guilt for the outbreak of war, but a writer who still adheres to his views of 1916 is at least under obligation to let his readers know of post-war revelations and the existence of revisionist views in all countries. If Mr. Hazen will rewrite this portion of his story, and the chapter on Bolshevik Russia, so as to make them less extreme and partisan, his *Europe Since 1815* will again be recognized as an excellent and interesting manual of political history.

Mr. Gibbons, beginning with *The New Map of Europe* in 1914, has issued a series of volumes which have had a striking success as popular history in the better sense of that term. The author was for a time professor of history and politics at Robert College, Constantinople, has been foreign correspondent of several newspapers and magazines, is widely-traveled and widely-acquainted in Europe, and was in Paris throughout the sittings of the Peace Conference. He brings to his writings a substantial body of information, some of it based on personal interviews and observation, a very readable style, and the engagingly direct and personal manner of the lecture platform. In introducing the reader to his *Europe Since 1918*, he declares himself "an observer and student of European affairs for fifteen years" with no "theories and national causes to advance and champion....He is not pro-anything." He does, however, express opinions with great frankness on numerous details, and this is one reason why his books are so interesting to read. At the same time it is true that he does not make himself a partisan in the unpleasant sense which would make it appear that the Bolsheviks or the Germans or the French or any other group are always right or wrong. His volume on the five years following the peace treaties is a very useful narrative and commentary. The author is convinced that the treaties were a violation of the terms of the armistice which was based on the Fourteen Points and President Wilson's addresses, that while General Smuts and others saw clearly that this was the case and that the treaty was unfair and unwise, President Wilson was satisfied and declared (Kansas City, September 6, 1919) that it was "one of the greatest documents in human history." Two of the principal signatories on the eve of signing told the author they "felt they were going to do something dishonorable," and he himself felt that "the ceremony was like a funeral." He deals at some length with the sound and unsound features of the peace, then takes up the story of developments in Europe and the Near East during the five succeeding years. He has little to say about the League of Nations during this period on the ground that it has not played any "vital part in European affairs."

J. M. G.

*The Growth of the United States.* By Ralph Volney Harlow. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1925. xv, 862 pp. \$4.00.

Professor Harlow's book is a worthy addition to the list of textbooks now available for use in the introductory course in American history in our colleges. In the organization and treatment of his material the author shows the results of long teaching experience and a due appreciation of the ability of the group for which his book is intended. Of the 823 pages which make up the text, 216 are devoted to

the Colonial and Revolutionary period, 314 to the years 1783-1865, and 293 to the period since the Civil War. This seems to the reviewer a fair weighting of the three broad divisions into which the history of the United States falls. The chapters average some eleven pages, being apparently designed in each case to cover a day's assignment. A modest list of selected readings which would be available in any college library is offered with each chapter. While not brilliantly written, Professor Harlow's book is very readable, and should justify his hope of holding the attention of the undergraduate for whom it was prepared.

In assembling his facts the author has shown a laudable tendency to avoid the encyclopedic treatment which seems so deadly to the student. This has meant a summary handling of some topics, particularly noticeable, perhaps, in the field of military history, although it is evident elsewhere. It was with a certain regret that the reviewer noticed the passing of that colorful hero of old Jamestown, Captain John Smith. But not everything can be, or should be, included in a student text, and in the selection of his subject matter Professor Harlow shows thoughtful discrimination.

In the interpretation of his facts Professor Harlow displays a thorough knowledge of the literature of his subject and of the results of recent scholarly investigation. In his discussion of the causes of the American Revolution there is a sympathetic understanding of the problems of Imperial administration, as well as of the political, social and economic conditions within the thirteen colonies which made possible the work of the American radicals in bringing the long controversy to the crisis of the war. In this connection the work of Samuel Adams is emphasized, perhaps, at the expense of the radical leaders in the other colonies.

In his account of the long period from 1783 to 1865 the author includes excellent chapters on the social and economic development of the nation. The great sectional controversy that finally led to the Civil War is treated impartially with an exposition of the southern point of view often lacking in school and college texts published in the North. The account of the military events of the Civil War is rather confusing, due, perhaps, to an effort to cover the ground in a somewhat too summary fashion.

In the years since the Civil War the author has brought out clearly the interrelation of the economic and political history of the country. The prominent personalities of the period have been treated frankly, but sensationalism has been avoided. The same effort to preserve a proper perspective is noticeable in the handling of recent events.

On the whole Professor Harlow has produced a well-balanced textbook, readable, and often provocative of real thought. There are few errata and these so trivial in character as in no wise to detract from the value of the book.

W. RANDALL WATERMAN.

Dartmouth College.

*The History of the Foreign Policy of the United States.* By Randolph Greenfield Adams. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1924. xv, 490 pp.

There is no comprehensive history of American foreign relations, and Mr. Adams' book is not intended to fill the gap. It is, however, a painstaking and distinctly original story of American foreign policy designed principally for use in college classes. The style is always lively and the treatment is frequently unconventional. One index of the author's desire to depart from the beaten track is his illustrations—the portraits of Beaumarchais, William, Earl Shelburne, Charles Francis Adams, Drago, Anson Burlingame, Townsend Harris and Walter Hines Page adorn the pages and, while in the text the emphasis is much more traditional, many readers will quarrel with Mr. Adams on the space that he gives to various incidents and persons. That, however, makes his book all the more interesting. With the canvas as large as is required for a history of the United States in international affairs, there are bound to be differences of opinion over the details of the portrait.

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The author knows international law as well as history and pays adequate attention to the phases of American foreign relations—expatriation, non-intervention, neutrality, the freedom of the seas, and the immunity of private property—which have been factors in determining our policy. With constitutional questions, however—and they are not without importance in this connection—Mr. Adams is not so greatly concerned. The difficulties which a federal system throw in the way of American foreign policy might have received more extended consideration; the limits of our treaty-making authority and conflicts between the federal government and the states in such matters as the treaty rights of aliens, etc., are of real importance.

But these are minor points in an admirable history. Mr. Adams' intention has been to interpret even more than to chronicle, and while readers may quarrel with they cannot fail to be interested by his judgments.

LINDSAY ROGERS.

Columbia University.

*The English-Speaking Nations.* By G. W. Morris and L. S. Wood. The Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1924. xx, 396 pp. \$1.20.

Within the last decade in particular much attention has been given to the interesting evolution of the commonwealth ideal in the British Empire. The recognition of the nationhood of the great self-governing dominions has been thrust upon the mother country and the world at large by the rapid flow of events and by the insistence of the erstwhile "colonials."

At first glance this volume would seem to have that evolution as its principal topic; the subtitle reads, "A Study of the Commonwealth Ideal, with Chapters on India and Egypt." But it is both more and less than that. In sixteen closely packed chapters, the expansion of Great Britain is reviewed from its beginnings. Much emphasis is put on the constant movement toward unity and bigness, a "destiny" which the British nation could not seem to "escape." The authors believe there "has always been a sense of trusteeship" moderating British overseas expansion. Their optimism even leads to the assertion, in the chapter on India, that the annexation of Sind is the "only definite act of aggression of which the British in India have been guilty."

A chapter is given to the United States, and to each of the great Dominions. The accounts of dominion development are, on the whole, good. And as much can be said of the chapter on the government of the Commonwealth and the Empire. Such matters, however, as the Australian immigration policy, racial friction in South Africa, Labor in Australian politics, Canada east versus Canada west, disintegrating tendencies within the Empire, are touched but lightly if touched at all.

The illustrations are abundant, many of them of real value because they are uncommon. There are a number of useful sketch maps. That of 1713 should show Gibraltar and Minorea as British. Penang is not on the Island of Sumatra. There is a helpful appendix listing the various units within the Empire, and a Time Chart that would have been of more worth if somewhat fuller. Washington did not become President in 1798, nor Fuad a King in 1923.

HOWARD ROBINSON.

Miami University.

*An Introduction to Church History.* By Rev. Peter Guilday, Ph.D., Professor of Church History, Catholic University of America. B. Herder Book Co., St. Louis, 1925. vii, 350 pp. \$2.00.

This volume was prepared primarily for the Roman Catholic clergy, but will be found useful to non-Catholic students both on its own merits and because there is so urgent need for such an elementary manual. The greater part discusses the meaning of church history, its scope and value, methods of study and the training of the ecclesiastical historian. The last two chapters contain the 1924 Presidential address of the American Catholic Historical Society on the "Mission of the Catholic Historian" and a

bibliography marred by the omission of several outstanding names; for example, Harnack does not appear in the index.

Because the author writes from a definitely Catholic viewpoint there are some points to which many will take exception. It is a hard saying that to reject the Christian view of the world is equivalent to rejecting all possibility of defining history (p. 12). Surely, too, we would be much poorer if all who had not the "supernatural vision" were halted on the "threshold of the temple of history" as Professor Guilday says would be "fair, just and equitable" to do (p. 12). Gibbon's niche in that temple would be empty. Niebuhr would probably be absent, and also Ranke whom Professor Guilday recognizes (p. 136) as the chief creator of the modern scientific school of historians.

Occasionally there are contradictions and errors of fact. Thus, on p. 49, we read that the historian must simply tell the facts leaving "explanations, applications and lessons" to the philosopher, the apologist and the theologian, while on p. 53 the author proceeds to present the "foremost lesson" of history. Still, Professor Guilday is both historian and theologian. But not even a theologian makes it easy to believe, in the face of innumerable modern investigations into the origins of Christianity, that "in every conceivable way, in thought, in culture, in its understanding of the true, the beautiful and the good, the Christian faith was opposed in irreconcilable opposition to the Greco-Roman world" (pp. 56-57). Even the Middle Ages, which are generally supposed to have had the "supernatural vision," recognized the similarity between Christianity and certain forms of pagan thought. It is scarcely true, finally, that early Christianity developed "under the pressure of a penal law system which outrivalled the most savage repressions of history....in the midst of the final insanity of paganism, the only just name for which is butchery" (pp. 57-58).

The merits of Professor Guilday's book easily outweigh such minor defects. There is an agreeable and probably futile emphasis upon the folly of our present periodization of history into ancient, medieval and modern, the references are useful and the comment on method suggestive. Best of all is the insistence upon the necessity of fairness and accuracy in this field of history which developed so largely out of sectarian strife and has been too often a mere battleground for theological disputants.

THOMAS PEARDON.

Barnard College.

*The Turco-Egyptian Question in the Relations of England, France and Russia, 1832-1841.* By F. S. Rodkey. Urbana, The University of Illinois, 1924. 274 pp.

It is an interesting period in the history of the Near East upon which Mr. Rodkey has chosen to write a scholarly monograph. The decade, 1832-1841, because of the activities of Mehemet Ali, the diplomatic problems arising out of the War of Greek Independence, and the determination of Sultan Mohommed II to reform a tottering Ottoman Empire, was a period, as the author points out, "during which for the first time there was serious danger of a general European war as a result solely of the rivalries of the great Powers in the Near East." It was a period of increasing consciousness on the part of England, France, and Russia that the Mediterranean might shortly recover some of the commercial and strategic importance which it lost by reason of the geographic discoveries of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Mr. Rodkey has made a careful survey of the literature, principally English and French, of his subject and has written a clear account of the outstanding diplomatic developments of the period. If his narrative shows no special imagination or color, it possesses the merit of being without notable bias. Also it reveals the influence of the sound scholarship of Professor A. H. Lybyer, who guides the author in his researches. There is great need for more studies of this specialized type, above all in the history of the Near East, where passion rather than profundity is so likely to rule.

EDWARD MEAD EARLE.

Columbia University.

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*Historical Terms and Facts.* By Francis S. Betten. Allyn and Bacon, Boston, 1924. 165 pp. \$1.00.

This little volume is a reference and supplementary book for Catholic schools. It contains sixty-eight descriptions of phrases, terms, and characters frequently mentioned in the study of history. The index also gives references to some one hundred and twenty-eight more items that are discussed in the sections under the sixty-eight topics above mentioned. These discussions vary in length from six lines to eleven pages with an average of two or three pages to the topic. There are twenty-eight illustrations. These are mostly reproductions of medieval prints and manuscripts, although a few present-day scenes are included.

Most of the topics discussed are from medieval history, a few from modern history and a still smaller number from ancient and "prehistoric" history. An idea of the type of terms explained can be obtained from the following: abbot, ecclesiastical architecture, attainder, early civilization, concordat, dark ages, deluge, Fisherman's Ring, Habeas Corpus, forms of government, inquisition, palatinate, papal documents, Peter the Hermit, plebiscite, primate, recall, referendum, salic law, stone age, talmud, telescope, tithe and witchcraft trials.

It may seem that a book for use in Catholic schools would necessarily be of little use to a non-Catholic. The creation, evolution, infallibility of the Bible and the deluge are explained according to this faith and are of value only in understanding the beliefs of a Catholic. While the author is a Catholic and has written from his own point of view, he is for the most part unbiased and there are so many valuable discussions which are useful in the teaching of history that this book ought to prove very helpful. The western world was dominated for so many centuries by the Catholic Church that a Catholic can prove of real value in explaining matters connected with his religion that have an historical significance. Part of the topics treated are not of a religious nature and many others give only such generally accepted facts as not to admit of any criticism on religious grounds.

The treatment is, in many instances, conservative and especially so in the case of such topics as the initiative, referendum and recall. In this connection Ohio is taken as an example and naturally the facts given are entirely different from those that prevail in the western states. A brief bibliography for further study would prove useful, but the only references are to Betten's other books.

Every teacher has experienced at times an inability to explain certain terms to pupils so that they are easily understood and has finally resorted to dictating a few concise statements about each term. *Historical Terms and Facts* confines itself exclusively to the explanation of nearly two hundred such troublesome topics in simple, direct, easily understood language that is within the vocabulary of every high school pupil. The type of topics discussed, the inclusion of many matters important in connection with medieval religious history and the form of the explanations are the book's greatest merits and those that make it such a valuable aid to the history teacher.

MALCOLM E. MACGILLIVRAY.

Visalia Union High School,  
California.

The first volume of Elie Halévy's well-known *Histoire du peuple anglais au XIX<sup>e</sup> siècle* has been translated into English by E. I. Watkin and D. A. Barber and appears under the title, *A History of the English People in 1815* (New York, Harcourt, Brace & Company, 1924. xvi, 576 pp. \$6.00). The book, which contains an introduction by Graham Wallas, falls into three main divisions. In the first, British political institutions as they existed at the opening of the nineteenth century are analyzed. Not only are the administrative and legislative systems discussed, but also popular liberties and public opinion and its relation to parliament and political parties. In the second division, entitled *Economic Life*, three main subjects are treated: Agriculture, Industry, and Credit and Taxation. The last division, devoted to religion and culture, stresses

such topics as the fundamental forms of English Protestantism, the influence of Methodism on the Church of England, the Evangelical movement, the status of the Jews, Scotch Presbyterians and the Catholics, the fine arts, literature, science, philosophy and education.

No one can read this volume without realizing in the first place that M. Halévy does not belong to the old school of historians who, for the most part, accept the thesis that history is "past politics." Rather he is to be classed as a disciple of the "new history." For him history is not a mere recitation of political events and military exploits, but a synthesis of man's activities. In this volume, therefore, he has meticulously attempted to describe and to show the influence of social, economic, religious and, above all, psychological factors in shaping England's civilization during the period considered.

While the author in his prefatory note modestly denies any claim as a research student, it is evident to any one acquainted with English history who examines his fifty-page bibliographical statement or, better, his numerous footnote references, that he has delved into a wealth of hitherto unused source material, particularly newspapers. In this connection both author and publisher are to be congratulated for having put the references on the pages where they are cited instead of printing them en masse at the end of each chapter or in the last pages of the book, a practice sometimes resorted to in an attempt to reduce the cost of publication and to "catch the reading public." Every person interested in getting a lucid, fuller, unbiased, and, therefore, more accurate picture of England during the first quarter of the last century should not fail to read this volume.—C.

## Book Notes

Those interested in the social and cultural aspects of American history cannot afford to overlook Professor Ralph Leslie Rusk's *The Literature of the Middle Western Frontier* (Columbia University Press, New York, 1925. Vol. I, xiii, 457 pp.; Vol. II, vi, 419 pp. \$7.50). Basing his study almost entirely on writings published before 1841, either by residents of the Middle West or by travelers who had visited that section, Professor Rusk, following the trail blazed by the chroniclers, Coggeshall and Venable, has produced a well-written and highly informing narrative. While it is true that considerable portions of the content are familiar, or at least easily accessible, the work in comparison with any other secondary source is more inclusive, better organized, and brings to light a wealth of hitherto hidden facts. Volume I contains eight chapters: Cultural Beginnings, Travel and Observation, Newspapers and Magazines, Controversial Writings, Scholarly Writings and Schoolbooks, Fiction, Poetry, and Drama. By reference to the calendar of professional dramatic companies in five western centers—Cincinnati, Lexington, Louisville, St. Louis and Detroit—for the years 1810 to 1840 one may get a fairly accurate graphic picture of the cultural phase of the westward movement during this period. The concluding chapter of the work, entitled *The Vogue of British and Eastern Writers*, forms the first part of Volume II. Here the author briefly indicates the influence of the writers of the older sections upon frontier life and frontier literature. By far the greater part of this volume, 325 pages, is devoted to chapter bibliographies. This feature should prove immensely helpful to the teacher and research student, inasmuch as it in most cases contains the name of the library where each work listed may be had. A very complete index is also appended.

The two volume work, *The Inside Passage to Alaska, 1792-1920* (Cleveland, The Arthur H. Clark Company, 1924. Vol. I, 342 pp.; Vol. II, 318 pp. \$12.50) by William Watson Woollen, edited by Paul L. Haworth, is in reality an undocumented historical travelogue based for the most part on Vancouver's journal and on the personal observation of the author who made no less than five trips to the region he describes. It traces the discoveries made by Vancouver and other early navigators along the northwest



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*Source Book of American History.* Edited by Albert Bushnell Hart (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1925). This is a revised edition of a well-known documentary collection for schools, originally published in 1899. The one change in the materials consists in the addition of two new chapters: XXII, New Tasks, 1900-1913; and Chapter XXIII, the World War and Its Outcome, 1914-1923. In spite of all allowance for space limitations the additional material is absurdly inadequate. It is, of course, entirely political and three of the twelve additional items are concerned with Theodore Roosevelt, two numbers are merely summaries that have no place in a "Source Book." One number, "A Hilltop on the Marne," has nothing at all to do with American history. Another number, from the "Reminiscences of a Soldier in 1918," contains nothing especially distinctive about the World War beyond a few references to gas shells. The book remains a useful little collection of documentary material for our political history, but the additional material is of minor value.

Professor William Bennett Munro's *Personality in Politics* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1924. 114 pp.) is one of the most interesting books that he has written. The author, whose textbooks on American and European government are well-known, has ventured some wise and witty reflections on reformers, bosses and political leaders. The volume is based on lectures delivered at the University of North Carolina, and their revision for publication has not destroyed certain devices to secure interest and iterations for emphasis which are more usual in oral discourse than on the printed page. What Professor Munro says about reformers, their ambitions, their successes and their failures is founded on an acquaintance with a good many reformers; and his discussion of bosses is the more worthwhile because of his previous studies of municipal government. He has, furthermore, made a detailed analysis of the outstanding facts relating to the ten best known bosses of the last century. Professor Munro writes with a sophistication and with a deftness which he could not display in his more formal texts and this little work will be of great interest to an audience wider than his previous books could reach.

*Eight Great American Lawyers* (Oklahoma City, The Harlow Publishing Company, 1923. 293 pp.), by Horace M. Hagan, prominent Oklahoma lawyer, contains brief biographical sketches of Luther Martin, William Pinkney, William Wirt, Thomas Addis Emmett, Sergeant Prentiss, Rufus Choate, Judah P. Benjamin and William M. Evarts. Inasmuch as Martin was born in 1744 and Evarts did not die until 1901, and as all eight men were more or less intimately connected with the national government in some official capacity, the volume contains many allusions to the political development of the United States during the nineteenth century. While extremely readable and on the whole interesting, it adds nothing that was not already well known. Its chief merit lies in the fact that it conveniently condenses within the covers of a single volume the outstanding features of the careers of eight distinguished American jurists. The book should prove valuable as supplementary reading for high school students.

The publication of Philip W. Sergeant's *The Life of Anne Boleyn* (New York, D. Appleton & Company, 1924. xi, 319 pp.) adds still another volume to the already considerable literature devoted to the ill-fated second wife of Henry VIII. The author, who bases his conclusions pretty largely on source materials, voices the opinion that Anne's character was blackened by her enemies, particularly by her religious opponents. His treatment, while on the whole impartial, is, nevertheless, very sympathetic. He admits that Anne was proud, ambitious, vindictive, loved gaiety, and was often injudicious in speech. But these characteristics, he declares, which did not make her a "creature

of evil," were more than counterbalanced by her bravery, loyalty, charity, and sincerity. Instead of being guilty of adultery and conspiracy, he reaches the conclusion that she was the innocent victim of the "cruel, unmoral, avaricious, treacherous and lying age of the Tudors." The volume contains sixteen full-page portrait illustrations and four brief appendices.

The Bureau of Social Hygiene has just made possible the publication of *The Inferior Criminal Courts Act of the City of New York*, by W. Bruce Cobb (Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1925. xii, 529 pp. \$4.00). Judge Cobb has been a City Magistrate in New York for many years. This book is designed primarily for lawyers, being an annotation of the statute in question with its various amendments. It will be of interest as well to the social workers in the city because of the close relation the minor courts of the city bear to their work. Hundreds of thousands of New York's many millions of people annually come in contact with these courts. While social workers and sociologists elsewhere may regret that the book is not written directly from their viewpoint, it does not wholly follow the stereotyped legal pattern. It is sprinkled with keen comments on the operation of the statutes and its style is distinctly more readable than the ordinary case book.—J. D. M.

*Ancient and Medieval History*, by Charles Ham, is a summary of world history to the American Revolution. "Prepared....for purposes of pedagogical review," it is really much better than the ordinary crammer's handbook. The topical method is intelligently handled, the selection of material admirable (social and economic factors being given generous space), and the analysis always carefully done. The significance of particular movements and peoples for general history is emphasized. Numerous questions and the inclusion of recent examination papers help to make a useful outline for teacher and pupil (Globe Book Company, N. Y., 1922. vi, 176 pp.).

The student of American economic history will find a wealth of information in Professor Benjamin H. Hibbard's *A History of the Public Land Policies* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1924. xix, 591 pp.). The volume, which is one of the Land Economic Series edited by Professor Richard T. Ely, is the first attempt to put into a single book the story of our public lands and the way the government dealt with them. Much of the ground has been covered before, but this fact does not in any way detract from the usefulness of the volume. Chapters XII and XIII, dealing with "Speculation" and "Federal Land Grants for Internal Improvements," respectively, together with the material on the period since the Civil War merit special attention. Certainly the Chapter on speculation ought to whet the appetites of those who desire to explore a phase of our history about which we as yet know all too little. If the book merits any adverse criticism it is because the author apparently failed at times to recheck his data, with the result that minor misstatements occur. One is at a loss also to understand why he makes no bibliographical mention of the valuable contributions of Stephenson and of Wellington. The many tables, maps and charts help greatly to illumine the text.

The Papers of John Steele, North Carolina Federalist, Congressman, and Comptroller of the United States Treasury from 1796 to 1802, have been published in two volumes by the North Carolina Historical Commission (Publications of the North Carolina Historical Commission, *The Papers of John Steele*. Raleigh, 1924. Vol. I, xxviii, 464 pp.; Vol. II, 455 pp.). These papers, edited by Professor H. M. Wagstaff, of the University of North Carolina, cover the period from 1778 to 1814. While the volumes do not profess to contain all of the Steele papers, they, nevertheless, represent the greater part of his fairly voluminous correspondence. As might be expected, the papers cover a wide range of subjects, but the work is indexed. Students interested in first hand material will find the collection useful. In this connection it should, perhaps, be added that the letters addressed to Steele appear, on the whole, to be more valuable than those which he himself wrote.

## Books on History and Government Published in the United States from June 27 to September 26, 1925

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

### AMERICAN HISTORY

- Abel, Annie Heloise. *The American Indian under reconstruction* (The slave holding Indians, Vol. 3). Cleveland, Ohio: Arthur H. Clark Co. 419 pp. (14 p. bibl.). \$5.00.
- Arredondo, Antonio de. *Arredondo's historical proof of Spain's title to Georgia*. Berkeley, Cal.: Univ. of Cal. Press. 400 pp. (13 p. bibl.). \$4.50.
- Beeby, D. J., and Beeby, Dorothea. *Community life today and in colonial times*. N. Y.: C. E. Merrill. 375 pp. 75c.
- Blakeslee, George H. *The recent foreign policy of the United States*. N. Y.: Abingdon Press. 368 pp. \$2.00.
- Bolton, Herbert E., and Ross, Mary. *The debatable land; a sketch of the Anglo-Spanish contest for the Georgia country*. Berkeley, Cal.: Univ. of Cal. Press. 151 pp. (11 p. bibl.). \$2.00.
- Bourne, H. E., and Benton, E. J. *A history of the United States*, revised edition. N. Y.: D. C. Heath. 730 pp. \$1.96.
- Boyd, Robert K. *The battle of Birch Coulee;...a description of a battle with the Indians*. Eau Claire, Wis.: Herges Pr. Co. 23 pp.
- Caldwell, Robert G. *A short history of the American people*. Vol. I, 1492-1860. N. Y.: Putnam. 530 pp. \$3.75.
- Channing, Edward. *A History of the United States*. Vol. 6, *The war for southern independence*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 652 pp. \$4.75.
- Clark, Robert C., and others. *A history of Oregon*. Chicago: Row, Peterson. 368 pp. \$1.00.
- Coan, Charles F. *A history of New Mexico*, 3 vols. N. Y.: American Hist. Soc., 709 Broadway. 1620 pp. \$25.00.
- Dupont, Col. H. A. *The campaign of 1864 in the valley of Virginia and the expedition to Lynchburg*. N. Y.: Nat'l Americana Society, 44 E. 23d St. 188 pp. \$2.50.
- Espenshade, Abraham H. *Pennsylvania place names*. State College, Pa.: Penna. State College. 375 pp. (5 p. bibl.). \$3.50.
- Evans, Lawton B. *The trail blazers [Story of Lewis and Clark]*. Springfield, Mass.: M. Bradley Co. 288 pp. \$1.75.
- Foreman, Grant. *Pioneer days in the early Southwest*. Cleveland, Ohio: Arthur H. Clark Co. \$6.00.
- Geddes, Joseph A. *The United order among the Mormons* (Missouri phase). Salt Lake City: Utah Desert News Press. 172 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$1.50.
- Hart, James. *The ordinance making powers of the President of the United States*. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Univ. Press. 339 pp. (8 p. bibl.). \$2.50.
- Koontz, Louis H. *The Virginia frontier, 1754-1763*. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 186 pp. (2 p. bibl.).
- Kroeber, A. L. *Handbook of the Indians of California*. Wash., D. C.: Govt. Pr. Off., Supt. of Docs. 1013 pp. (24 p. bibl.).
- McConnell, Weston J. *Social cleavages in Texas*. N. Y.: Longmans Green. 196 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$2.00.
- Matteson, David M. *List of manuscripts concerning American history preserved in European libraries*. Wash., D. C.: Carnegie Institution of Wash. 211 pp.
- Norris, Walter B. *Annapolis, its colonial and naval story*. N. Y.: Crowell. 337 pp. \$3.00.
- Osgood, Herbert L. *The American colonies in the eighteenth century*, Vol. 4. N. Y.: Columbia Univ. Press. 606 pp. \$5.00.
- Quincy Terecentenary Committee. *Quincy, Mass., historical guide and map*. Quincy, Mass.: Quincy Hist. Soc. 48 pp.
- Robbins, Charles L. *School history of the American people*. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co. 636 pp. \$1.72.
- Rolt-Wheeler, Francis. *Colonial ways and wars*. N. Y.: Doran. 263 pp. \$1.50.
- Spence, Lewis. *Atlantis in America*. N. Y.: Brentano's. 213 pp. \$4.00.
- Stuart, Granville. *Forty years on the frontier*, 2 vols. Cleveland, Ohio: Arthur H. Clark Co. \$12.50 set.
- Tarbell, Ida M. *History of the Standard Oil Co.*, 2 vols. [reissue]. N. Y.: Macmillan. 425, 422 pp. \$7.50.

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Before me, a notary public in and for the State and County, aforesaid, personally appeared Alfred C. Willits, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

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- Vollintine, Grace. *The making of America*. Boston: Ginn & Co. 279 pp. (2 p. bibl.). 96c.  
 Wagner, H., and Power, Alice R. *Pacific history stories.... for use in the public schools*. San Francisco: Harr Wagner. 280 pp. \$1.12.  
 Zimmerman, James F. *Impressment of American seamen*. N. Y.: Longmans Green. 279 pp. \$3.00.

## ANCIENT HISTORY

- Clover, Reginald C. *Ancient Egypt; outline of history from the earliest ages to dynasty XXX*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 64 pp. 40c.  
 Hardy, Ernest G. *Christianity and the Roman government*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 174 pp. \$1.75.  
 Hill, Ida T. *Rome of the Kings*. N. Y.: Dutton. 266 pp. (4 p. bibl.). \$3.00.  
 Lanciani, Rodolfo A. *Ancient and modern Rome*. Boston: Marshall Jones. 178 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$1.50.  
 Macarthur, Walter. *Sea routes of commerce; an outline of maritime history in ancient and medieval times*. Boston: Stratford. 117 pp. \$1.25.  
 Mills, Dorothy. *The book of the ancient Greeks*. N. Y.: Putnam. 436 pp. (4 p. bibl.). \$2.50.  
 Nilsson, Martin P. *A history of Greek religion*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 310 pp. \$4.25.  
 Vulliamy, C. E. *Our prehistoric forerunners*. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 224 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$2.50.  
 Wright, Frederick A. *Greek social life*. N. Y.: Dutton. 264 pp. \$2.00.

## ENGLISH HISTORY

- Belloc, Hilare. *A history of England, Vol. I [55 B. C. to 1066 A. D.]*. N. Y.: Putnam. 434 pp. \$3.75.  
 Brayden, William H. *The Irish Free State*. Chicago: Chicago Daily News. 45 pp. 10c.  
 Cooke, A. H. *The early history of Mapledurham [England]*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 224 pp. \$4.20.  
 Dodwell, Henry. *A sketch of the history of India from 1858 to 1918*. N. Y.: Longmans Green. 337 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$2.25.  
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 Moulton, H. G., and Lewis, Cleona. *The French debt problem*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 471 pp. \$2.00.  
 Reparations, Part 6. *The Dawes plan in operation*. Boston: World Peace Foundation. 5c.

## MEDIEVAL HISTORY

- Evans, Joan. *Life in medieval France*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 234 pp. \$5.25.  
 Forbes, F. A. *The grip-fast history books; book 4, the Middle Ages and the Renaissance*. N. Y.: Longmans Green. 205 pp. 90c.

## MISCELLANEOUS

- Bridges, T. C. *The young folks' book of discovery*. Boston: Little, Brown. 272 pp. \$2.00.  
 Carter, Thomas F. *The invention of printing in China and its spread westward*. N. Y.: Columbia Univ. Press. 300 pp. (11 p. bibl.). \$7.50.  
 Culbertson, William S. *International economic policies*. N. Y.: Appleton. 593 pp. \$3.50.  
 Hanstein, Otfried von. *The world of the Incas, a socialistic state of the past*. N. Y.: Dutton. 189 pp. \$2.50.  
 Hooton, Ernest A. *The ancient inhabitants of the Canary Islands*. Cambridge, Mass.: Peabody Museum of Harvard Univ. 426 pp. (5 p. bibl.). \$16.00.  
 Keltie, John S., and Epstein, editors. *The statesman's yearbook...for the year 1925*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 1566 pp. \$7.50.  
 Ward, Sir A. W., and others, editors. *The Cambridge modern history atlas, 2d edition*. N. Y.: Macmillan. \$12.00.

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- Alden, Carroll S., and Earle, Ralph. *Makers of Naval tradition*. Boston: Ginn & Co. 344 pp. \$1.56.  
 Asser, John, bp. of Sherborne. *Life of King Alfred; translated by L. C. Jane*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 222 pp. \$1.85.  
 Whyte, A. J. *The early life and letters of Cavour, 1810-1848*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 404 pp. \$5.00.  
 McEntire, Walter F. *Was Christopher Columbus a Jew?* Boston: Stratford. 183 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$1.50.  
 Carpenter, Ernest C. *The boyhood days of President Coolidge*. Rutland, Vt.: Tuttle Co. 188 pp. \$1.50.  
 Coolidge, Calvin. *Inaugural address, March 4, 1925*. Wash., D. C.: Govt. Pr. Off., Supt. of Docs. 9 pp.  
 Grey of Falloden, Edward, viscount. *Twenty-five years, 1892-1916, 2 vols.* N. Y.: Stokes. 361, 362 pp. \$10.00.  
 Johnson, Sir William. *The papers of Sir William Johnson*. Vol. 4. Albany: Univ. of State of New York. 914 pp. \$2.50.  
 Forester, C. S. *Josephine, Napoleon's Empress*. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 253 pp. \$4.00.  
 Geer, Walter. *Napoleon and Marie Louise*. N. Y.: Brentano's. 356 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$5.00.  
 Ossendowski, Ferdinand A., and Palen, L. S. *From president to prison [First author president of Russian Far Eastern Republic]*. N. Y.: Dutton. 368 pp. \$3.00.  
 Madison, Lucy F. *Washington [for young people]*. Phila.: Penn. Pub. Co. 399 pp. \$3.50.  
 Dickson, Harris. *An old-fashioned senator [life of John Sharp Williams]*. N. Y.: Stokes. 218 pp. \$2.00.  
 Collins, Varnum L. *President Witherspoon, a biography, 2 vols.* Princeton, N. J.: Princeton Univ. Press. 249, 280 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$7.50 set.

## GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Bell, Edward P. *Japan views the Pacific*. Chicago: Chicago Daily News. 18 pp. 10c.  
 Cloud, A. J., and Meany, E. S. *Our constitutions, national and state [for use in the State of Washington]*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman. 350 pp. \$1.20.  
 Fachrl, Alexander P. *The permanent court of interna-*

- tional justice. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 350 pp. \$5.00.
- Liu, Shih Shun. Extra territoriality; its rise and decline. N. Y.: Longmans. 235 pp. \$2.50.
- Merriam, Charles E. New aspects of politics. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press. 270 pp. \$2.50.
- Munro, William B. The governments of Europe. N. Y.: Macmillan. 792 pp. \$4.25.
- Rockow, Lewis. Contemporary political thought in England. N. Y.: Macmillan. 335 pp. (4 p. bibl.). \$5.25.
- Sait, Edward M., and Barrows, D. P. British politics in transition. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co. \$1.80.
- Scott, James B. Sovereign states and suits before arbitral tribunals and courts of justice. N. Y.: N. Y. Univ. Press, 32 Waverly Place. 370 pp. \$6.00.
- Speranza, Gino. Race or nation. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill. 278 pp. \$3.00.
- Turkington, Grace A., and Sullivan, Jas. Community civics for New York State. Boston: Ginn & Co. 617 pp. \$1.48.

## Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, PH.D.

### GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- The Sociological Uses of History. J. O. Hertzler (*American Journal of Sociology*, September).
- Personality and History Teaching. Samuel M. Levin (*Education*, September).
- Sovereign State or Sovereign Group? W. Y. Elliott (*American Political Science Review*, August).
- The Economics of Diplomacy. Alfred L. P. Dennis (*North American Review*, September, October, November).
- De Facto Government. Luis Anderson (*Inter-America*, August).
- A Century of Medical Progress. Humphry Rolleston (*Quarterly Review*, July).
- Quaint Legal Punishments. Jackson Coleman (*Indian Review*, June).
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### THE BRITISH EMPIRE

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